

# The Social Studies

Volume XXVIII, Number 6

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

October, 1937

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 1021 Filbert Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 1021 Filbert St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1937, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879.

Additional entry as second-class matter at the Post Office at Menasha, Wis. Printed in U.S.A.

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# The Social Studies

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

VOLUME XXVIII, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1937

## Why Study History?

J. IRA KREIDER

*Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania*

"Why study history?" This is a question which has been asked many times, and which has many answers. Some take up the study of history as a form of entertainment—one which rests the mind and occupies leisure hours. Others go to history for the portrayal of certain desired models of moral conduct. Sometimes the characters and deeds are embellished so that the lesson to be taught will be illustrated more effectively. To many, history is a convenient vehicle for the teaching of patriotism. Persons and incidents of the country's past are used to instill into the minds of the people an unswerving loyalty to the powers that be, and hope to continue to be. Frequently it is said that history should be taught to inculcate the principles of good citizenship. This appears to be a laudable purpose. Too often, however, those who are urging the use of certain textbooks and courses of study for the teaching of good citizenship, are the advocates of particular causes, and wish to promote their own type of civic virtue. The reasons for the study of history then, vary according to the time, the place, and the individual.

If the time spent upon the study of history is to be justified, there should be an objective. This purpose is to be determined by the nature of the standards and ideals of the society in which it is studied. If the government of the United States is a representative democracy, if there is a bill of rights to guarantee freedom of thought and equality of opportunity, if the government exists by the consent of those who are governed, then, the objectives of the study of history will follow a particular trend. If the American

government is to serve the well-being of the people, if there is to be free and open-minded discussion to discover how the government can best promote the happiness of the people, if the agencies of the government are to be used to serve the common good of all, then, the motives for the study of history will take on a peculiar flavor.

Miss Lucy M. Salmon, in her admirable book, *Why Is History Rewritten?* writes, "Its one quest is truth and truth must be single-minded and blind to all else."<sup>1</sup> She shows that in the past, history has been consciously used for other purposes. Thus we need to push back the outposts of our knowledge of the past. So far as possible we need to put aside our prejudices and preconceptions so that we may learn the lessons which earlier times have for us. This quest for truth is eternal. "History must always be rewritten because we can only approximate the absolute truth."<sup>2</sup> In a society where there is freedom of thought and where governments are instituted for the benefit of those who are governed, the function of history is to furnish clues to give direction to the thoughts and actions of men in the present and in the future.

At the present time there are not a few who feel that history is losing ground and is giving way to political science, economics and sociology. Professor Carlton J. H. Hayes notes that it is becoming fashionable to regard history as a step-sister of the social sciences or social studies.<sup>3</sup> Indeed, he fears that we are coming to the time when history may be degraded to the status of the fallen sister. We no longer talk

of the history program. It is the social studies program. There is to be a little of economics, a little of sociology, and a little of political science. No attention is to be given to anything except what is happening at the present time, or perhaps the past several years. Guided by the experiences of the present and the immediate past, the rising generation is to solve its problems and bring about a new day. Professor Hayes sees the reason for this trend in the fact that there is available such a large quantity and hodge-podge of facts about all manner of men and things; in the belief that the study of human actions and human behavior should follow the method of the study of the natural sciences; and that superintendents and principals are the victims of this new movement because it makes them feel that they are abreast of the times. Be this as it may, it is true that there are groups who are encouraging this new tendency with apostolic missionary zeal. They are promoting a "cause." They are going out on the highways and byways to win converts for the new order.

History, as we now think of it, is a method of work. The historical method can be applied to all forms of thought and activity of human-kind. In the words of Charles A. Beard, "History as past actuality includes, to be sure, all that has been done, said, felt, and thought by human beings on this planet since humanity began its long career. . . . But it is history as thought, not as actuality, record, or specific knowledge, that is really meant when the term 'history' is used in its widest and most general significance."<sup>1</sup> The economist, the sociologist, even the scientist who deals with material and physical things, makes use of the historical method. History teaches that there is a continuity of human thought and human action. On the other hand, it proves that change does occur; that the record of humanity is not entirely static. Certain trends can be detected which give clues to the future. History—long range history—holds an important place in any education program. It is one of the most effective means for giving the rising generation a broader information and a basis and foundation for the more efficient use of intelligence.

The student of history and the teacher of history accept these ideas. But that is not enough. They must convince others of the values of the study of history. They must feel a responsibility for having history take its proper place in preparing the rising generation for more complete and more intelligent living. This responsibility should be assumed in every stage of the educational system, from the elementary schools to the colleges and universities. The professor in the school of higher learning who devotes his time to research and the teaching of advanced students has a significant place in the scheme. The men and

women thus engaged deserve our highest respect. Anyone who reads the memorial to H. L. Osgood, by Dixon Ryan Fox is impressed by the sincerity and devotion of the great historian to his self-appointed task. He worked from morning until late in the night. Often he would rise from his bed to set down some suggestion which had come to him. He drove his body, originally endowed with health, until it was broken, and extended beyond the limits of its power.<sup>2</sup> This scholar, and others of lesser attainments, who are revealing new truths of history and who are influencing the thought and methods of the leaders in historical study, are indispensable.

A considerable part of the educational program, however, lies below the college and university. We have come to the time when all the children of all people are in our high schools. There are some pupils of exceptional ability. There are many pupils of moderate ability. But they are all there. They furnish indeed, a vast reading population. Instructional material must be provided for them. The rapid and recent growth of the high school enrollment has created a new element in our educational plan, the significance of which is frequently not sufficiently appreciated. Just as H. L. Osgood was an historian for the scholar, the high school teacher is the historian for the less mature, and in most cases, less brilliant minds. The teacher of history in the high school needs to search for the truth, as does the professor in the university. His function is to make use of the lessons of history and adapt them to the understanding and needs of his students. Too often we fail to give the high school teacher his just dues. Teaching in the public schools is becoming a profession. The day is past when teaching is a stop gap occupation for the future clergyman, lawyer, physician, or life insurance agent. There are fewer cases where the football coach is given several classes in history. The great number of history teachers in the secondary schools have the study and teaching of history as their prime interest. They have specific preparation for their work and are capable in the performance of their duties.

College teacher, high school teacher—each in his own way—can use the historical method to increase his understanding of things, and help those who come under his influence to live more intelligently.

<sup>1</sup> Lucy M. Salmon, *Why is History Rewritten?* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1929), p. 16.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 30.

<sup>3</sup> Carlton J. H. Hayes, "History and the Present," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVII (February, 1936), pp. 75-81.

<sup>4</sup> Charles A. Beard, "Written History as an Act of Faith," *American Historical Review*, XXXIX (January, 1934), p. 219.

<sup>5</sup> Dixon Ryan Fox, *Herbert Levi Osgood* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1924), 109-110.



# In Defense of Socialized Procedures

LUVELLA K. RESCHKE

*Vice-Principal, Peckham Junior High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin*

## AN INDICTMENT OF THE PRESENT SITUATION

While the enrollment in the senior high schools has nearly quintupled during the last three decades, the curriculum by and large has remained a rigid subject compartment arrangement with little interest in our crucial current needs. Thousands of high school graduates in our nation have never had one integrated or challenging course in problems of government, industrial history, economics or sociology. The courses offered in history largely close the doors to the present. The emphasis has been on skills and verbatim regurgitations of the textbook facts. Only one year of social science is required for graduation in many of the senior high schools and that may be satisfied by the election of a subject matter course in American history or civics in which there is no opportunity offered for the interpenetration of imaginative minds based on actual and vicarious life experiences. It is no wonder that organized government means so little to students. They think only in terms of privileges, rights, and law evasions instead of intelligent self-interest, participation and duties.

Another indictment of the public school system is the over-emphasis on awards to stimulate self-interest still further. The chief objective of education has been to promote an interest in individual success. To make the student more conscious of his personal advancement an elaborate system of marks and credits has been devised. The social values of education are obliterated by the individualistic. They remain extrinsic. Marks often create the illusion of an educational achievement. Self-interest is in the foreground of consciousness and the first impulse to a response is to react in terms of it. It needs restraint. The habit of working only for personal distinction at school instead of building the higher concepts of life, may become the mode of behavior for life.

Method, also, may be criticized. Method generally has been traditional and stereotyped. It has offered no opportunity for the interaction of minds; facts have remained unmotivated, unassociated in a formal classroom atmosphere. Instead of social intelligence developed through many-sided experiences, a feeling of defiance toward existing institutions has been created. "We learn to do by doing," has been interpreted to mean, "We learn to do that which every other student does and no more." It has been a listening

school, in which the students have been asked to stand, recite, and sit down. The child has not been asked to think for himself. He has memorized, recited, and followed. The teacher has been the task master and sometimes the enemy of his students. The classroom period has been spent largely in oral and written testing—not teaching in terms of thinking and questioning. A classroom offering an atmosphere of controlled freedom is virtually a miniature laboratory in preparation for a democracy. Self-realization in a social medium is indispensable to a training in civic apprenticeship.

There is also the lack of social and moral adjustments as a result of the present educational process. It has offered no environment in which social intelligence could be developed and transmuted into moral forces (value complexes or ideals) that dominate action. When over fourteen billion dollars, according to the Osborn report, are spent annually to combat crime in some form or another or in property loss (one per cent of which is used to maintain inmates in penal institutions and ninety-nine per cent is what criminals take from the public), our public school systems have failed in moral education and in their mental hygiene program. By the very nature of the purpose of education both of these should occupy the foreground in curriculum planning. The schools can well afford to emphasize the "need of living a good life" first, and then stress the acquisition of skills, powers, and knowledge necessary for vocations and avocations. An act is immoral when it interferes with growth in ourselves or in others. Society suffers when the individual fails to live up to his capacities. Society also suffers when the individual fails to recognize the right to grow in others. "The one true and certain test of the value of education is character and conduct. If these be on a low, an unintelligent or an immoral plane, then education has failed. The amazing waves of unreasoning emotion which sweep over vast masses of the population, and the utter selfishness and self-centeredness of so many, furnish cumulative evidence that education has not done and is not doing the work expected of it."<sup>1</sup>

Still another indictment is the failure of most teachers to take on the full responsibilities of private citizens, to keep informed and interested vitally in current social, economic and political problems, the

solution of which makes possible the perpetuation of the democratic experiment and democratic culture. Educators are one of the strongest groups in America intellectually, but the weakest politically for their number. They must make themselves worthy of public esteem by participation. Perhaps the indifference displayed toward social movements is caused by their unique position as public servants and their cloistered and protected lives from the havoc of the competitive world. They fail to comprehend the basic assumptions underlying an evolving democracy. Usually, they are satisfied with the status quo and teach the concepts and loyalties of the prevailing climate of opinion only. This attitude is partly due to the fact that circumstances compel them to play two rôles, namely, one that of private citizen and the other that of the public servant. As public servants, they can neither be protagonists of the old order nor protagonists of the new, but can encourage students to make critical analyses of both and exercise their intellectual freedom by making choices. As private citizens, they have obligations to be positive forces in the community and to align themselves on the side of their convictions after careful deliberations. The teacher should be the leader in the study of society.

In speaking of the teacher as a scholar, Dr. Edward A. Fitzpatrick writes, "The scholar as a human being will be interested in the social movements of his day, whether it be rescuing of children from premature devitalizing labor, the lessening of human losses in industry, or a plan of management that will bring reasonably permanent industrial peace; or the creation of a new park on the other side of the city, the improvement of the public service of the state, or the creation of a new world order. These and similar things, the scholar must be interested in, must be informed about, must take his part in, as citizen, as producer, as parent, or as human being."<sup>2</sup>

In answer to the question, "How shall the teacher approach the problems of social reconstruction?" Dr. Harold Rugg states his position, "Each of us must decide now where he stands; in fact, each of us will decide where he stands, whether he does it consciously or not. Let us not forget for a single moment that drift, inertia or any other form of refusal to make a decision, is itself decision making. Every person who does nothing, merely drifts with the tide, has taken a position in defense of things as they are. . . . It would be far better 'for his own soul' at least for him deliberately to make a decision for himself. . . . By the very nature of what he professes, that is, studying, confronting problems, assembling data, discussing, he cannot be a blind protagonist in his approach to the social problem. He is a social engineer—a student of man and his changing society, not a devotee of faith, nor a mere loyal member of a party."<sup>3</sup>

A good citizen is eager to seek the truth wherever

it may be found, though it fails to coincide with his preconceived hypotheses, or is diametrically opposed to prevailing theories of his contemporaries or comes from the pen of an opponent. Progress is dependent upon divergent ideas and trends. Retardation is caused by "men who seek for truth in their own little worlds and not in the great world without them." Education needs to be conservative, but a skeptical conservatism is desirable; one that adheres to all that is good in the past and at the same time inquires into the worth-whileness of the new, even though it may mean a readjustment and reorganization of the present. The present is but one link in an almost endless chain. Its function is to connect coherently and harmoniously the best of human endeavor of the past with that which is about to prove its permanency. An atmosphere of "controlled freedom" in institutions makes progress possible and at the same time avoids pitfalls due to ultra radicalism. The following words from Sir Francis Bacon's *Novum Organum* are apropos to these statements:

And though a scholar must have faith in his master, yet a man well instructed must judge for himself; for learners owe their masters only a temporary belief and a suspension of their own judgment till they are fully instructed, and not an absolute resignation or perpetual captivity. Let great authors, therefore, have their due, but so as not to defraud time, which is the author of authors and the parent of truth.

#### THE PSYCHOLOGICAL VALUES OF SOCIALIZED PROCEDURES

1. The socialized procedure is the American way (parliamentarian) to learn to give consent where differences are blended toward a new unified whole in a natural audience situation. Students learn to abide by a majority decision until further truths are discovered.

2. Students learn to initiate their own problems and learn to look for educational values in their work.

3. More opportunity is offered for associative and concomitant learning than the traditional method offers.

4. A well-prepared socialized procedure mitigates the deadly formality and monotony of the question and answer method. Through the interpenetration of the minds of students and teachers, provision is made for the natural outlet of social impulses.

5. The socialized procedure requires self-discipline and self-restraint.

6. In a socialized procedure, the curriculum is fitted to the interests and needs of the child which in turn tends to become self-motivating. He becomes a contributor on his own volition, as well as a listener. He learns to lead in proportion to his capacity and follow when circumstances demand.

7. Competitive and individualistic motives are replaced in part by a desire for group accomplishments and social approval.

8. Practically every hour of the day the student's thoughts become influenced, molded or indoctrinated by the stimuli in this environment. Socialized procedures give students opportunities to exercise the making of decisions in their own right by retaining some facts and rejecting others. This prerequisite to citizenship in a democracy liberates the student from the undesirable influences in his environment. Such training helps him also to decide what to do when he faces problems concerning his companions, his family, his clubs and later helps him assume definite positions on the critical, political, social, and economic questions of the day. He is taught to predict outcomes in the light of his social responsibilities.

9. Students may be taught to gauge their time according to the importance of the problems and avoid useless repetition and irrelevant discussions. To learn to place value on the "time element" is good training for any activity.

10. The training received in socialized procedure creates an appreciative attitude of mind toward other minds. Students learn to think, "I don't like what Jack is saying, but I do know he has the right to say it." Students are taught to give helpful, but inoffensive criticisms.

11. It also provides training in intellectual honesty. Students are usually more concerned in gaining the approval of the group than in gaining the approval of the teacher. Group consciousness is developed along with a feeling for group responsibilities. "To thine ownself be true, And it must follow, as the night the day, Thou canst not then be false to any man."

12. The socialized procedure is psychologically correct because it is based upon the laws of learning (law of readiness, of exercise, and effect). There is satisfaction when something worthwhile has been contributed and dissatisfaction when no attempt has been made.

#### THE LIMITATIONS OF SOCIALIZED PROCEDURE

There are no doubt certain dangers in the use of the socialized procedures. Below are enumerated some of the most outstanding shortcomings:

1. The machinery devised for carrying on socialized procedures may become so elaborate because of the close adherence to detail, unwieldy and artificial that it resembles an oriental ritual. Any formality that has no real function or ultimate educational value should be eliminated.

2. The proper place for the teacher in the activity is important. She may be too enthusiastic, take the lead away from students and deprive them of opportunities to develop, or she may eliminate herself so

completely that there is little direction and purpose. A happy medium between too much coaching and too much self-effacement is desirable.

3. Students should be carefully trained to take on the responsibilities related to these procedures. Permitting untrained and immature students to run the activities right from the start, may do more harm than good.

4. It frequently occurs that a minority group of brighter or bolder students usurp the prerogatives of the less apt and forward. It is here that training in the rights of others is so essential. Students may be trained to want to share opportunities, both in oral contributions as well as work on tangible group projects.

5. Scholarship is often neglected. Time should be allowed for an exploratory and assimilative period where a goodly supply of source materials are available. Accuracy in the gathering of data and orderly arrangements of facts are indispensable in forming logical conclusions.

6. Often no attempt is made to summarize vital points and clinch them. Definite time should be set aside for fixation purposes. Testing programs, psychologically timed, are incentives to achievement.

7. Sometimes the problems contributed by students are not challenging and real. The result is that students will lose interest. If the teacher does not motivate the unit sufficiently, students will in turn be satisfied with the minimum learning to meet bare requirements.

8. Sometimes teachers expect contributions on a mature level.

9. A poor teacher may be satisfied with the outward display and not truly seek or discover inner changes of the intangibles (attitude, willingness to cooperate, social skills, etc.).

10. Because of the imperfections of the present tests that do not measure attitudes, associative learning, and other important outcomes, the testing and grading programs are complicated.

11. Dr. Harold Rugg makes this significant statement regarding the limitations of socialized procedures, "If we attempt to perpetuate the democratic method, we must accept its necessary limitations, especially the limitation that parliamentary discussion is slow and meandering and wasteful. . . . Nevertheless, it is the only course by which the democratic consent can be produced among the general population."

#### A SUGGESTED TECHNIQUE TO CONDUCT SOCIALIZED PROCEDURES

In a more and more complex civilization with less and less elbow room, we must take seriously "the problem of learning to live together." This calls for a procedure which offers an opportunity to share re-



sponsibilities, initiate and execute plans in actual forum situations under teacher guidance. Group work requires continual adaptation and adjustment. The environment should encourage the child to ask questions in order to satisfy his curiosity. It should create situations where differences of opinion can arise and true facts can be sifted from the contributions of the many and the best plan accepted. Activities of social value have definite therapeutic values from a mental hygiene point of view. Encouraging creative thinking is valuable not only to the growth of the child, but to society. Progress is dependent upon the variation from the norm. In socialized procedures, each individual has an opportunity to "affirm its own inner truth and respect the fact that every other integrated personality has its truth." The classroom situation should give the child an opportunity for the self-realization of his latent abilities, skills and powers, thus placing a premium on human values and liberating his potentialities. The new psychology encourages and provides for differences in personalities and abilities, and at the same time, it keeps the classroom organization an harmonious and equilibrated entity.

1. Students are encouraged to help plan and organize the unit through a series of problems after the teacher has carefully motivated it and given an over-view.

2. Students are encouraged to ask questions of each other as well as of the teacher.

3. Students are encouraged to look for authoritative evidence to substantiate their contributions. Reference materials may be kept in readiness on the desk. They should learn to be respectful in their interpretation of other students' contributions, to control impulsive behavior and preface their statements by phrases like, "If I understand you correctly . . ."—"Assuming that you mean this . . ."—"On this assumption, I think so and so . . ." etc. They may question the validity of the contribution of another student by saying, "Your point of view is well taken, Harry, but what is your source?"

4. Students tactfully correct each other's mistakes in English pronunciation and facts immediately in quiet, polite and sincere manner.

5. Students stand quietly near their desks after a question or problem has been stated by the teacher or student to indicate their readiness to participate as in adult parliamentary functions.

6. The teacher does not show or voice her approval or disapproval of the discussion until the students have had an opportunity to indicate the same. The teacher repeats the answer only in a new setting or with a view of provoking further thought.

7. If students are not certain of the validity of their own contribution they should learn to say, "I believe" or "I think." The purpose of true discussion is to learn what is right, rather than who is right.

8. Students should address other students by their first names. At the beginning of the semester, they may copy the seating charts of their classes, so that they may become acquainted with the names early.

9. The teacher does not permit students to squander time on subjects irrelevant to the problem at hand, but keeps interest high by working toward specific predetermined educational aims.

10. The teacher permits students to judge the educational values of the unit.

11. The problems in the unit of work should be so well organized and known to the class that it can begin work immediately without the presence of the teacher in case he is detained or absent.

12. Individual effort and investigation should be motivated, not by a desire to surpass all others, but a willingness to make worthy contributions to a common undertaking.

13. Drills and devices for securing individual improvement may be socialized.

14. Students should know facts, avoid artificiality and showing off. They should hold the respect of the group because of their knowledge.

15. Students should be so trained in self-assurance that the presence of visitors will not interfere with their spontaneous interest in the activity at hand; if anything, the presence of others should challenge and motivate their thinking.

#### TYPES OF SOCIALIZED PROCEDURES

It is doubtful whether there is any method available, regardless of how carefully it has been psychologized, that will meet successfully all classroom difficulties and situations. The human equation and the multiplicity of personalities are the disrupting factors. There are also many ramifications to a single procedure and each of these must be evaluated as to its immediate and ultimate effectiveness. A carefully psychologized procedure, however, is as indispensable as an integrated curriculum in producing personalities that have both a tolerant and critical understanding of the pressing needs of social security and social change.

Certain bonds, associative and concomitant, are being established continually as well as the bringing into consciousness of certain factual knowledge, known as primary bonds. These overtones of learning are important since they are often assimilated blindly by the student and often go unrecognized by the teacher.

Another limitation of method is quoted here from the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies:

Since purpose gives direction and meaning to every educational undertaking, it follows that method apart from purpose lacks both direction and meaning; that the best method linked to inferior, irrelevant, confused or unsocial pur-



pose as judged by some accepted frame of reference, can give only inferior, irrelevant confused or unsocial results; and that method, like knowledge, must be conceived, applied, and appraised in terms of purpose.<sup>4</sup>

Below are given short descriptions of socialized procedures. To keep interest high, different methods can be used from time to time. No one method should be used exclusively.

*The Discussion Method.* The technique generally used has been discussed above and therefore needs no repetition. This method is basic to all socialized forms. It should, however, be greatly simplified and especially adapted to the classroom to create an informal situation. This procedure is also known as the parliamentary method.

*The Forum Method.* Students prepare scholarly reports on special topics of general interest and present them in a masterly fashion to the group. The report usually indicates wide reading and is a real contribution to the class. Sometimes it is a combination of reading and a unique experience. After the report has been given, students may ask questions for additional information from the speaker and contribute toward the topic.

*The Committee Forum Method.* Besides the necessary officers, constitution and by-laws, there are usually several standing committees, such as a committee on the historical and evolutionary phases of the unit, a committee on present-day problems, one on debates, playlets and other methods of self-expression, and one on bibliographies. The members rotate on these committees after the completion of a unit so that all have a chance to serve on each. Committees meet and select their chairmen, thus exercising their judgment in evaluating one another as to ability. The chairmen and teacher help organize the work together so as to get a more thorough perspective of the work that is before them than the preview afforded. Committee members may either choose their own topics or accept the assigned topic from the chairmen. When students give their oral reports on any of the committees, they hand in written outlines with bibliographies attached. Collateral reading is greatly encouraged. Objective tests are given from time to time on the basic material studied. The following steps of learning are utilized: (1) observation, (2) analysis and evaluation, (3) assimilation and generalization, (4) participation in classroom activities.

*The Panel Discussion Plan.* A chairman or mediator and a panel of four to eight students are chosen to take charge of the activities for the period. A broad general current topic or theme is carefully prepared

by the group. Controversial issues lend themselves particularly well to this method. Each member of the panel chooses a particular phase of the problem on which he becomes especially prepared. The chairman prepares preliminary statements and questions concerning the topic up for discussion and then calls upon panel members for their contributions. Usually one group sits at the right hand side of the chairman around a table and the other group on the left. After a full discussion has been given by the members on the panel, students in the class may participate. Tests may be devised and used to measure the learning. The shortcoming of this procedure lies in the fact that only a few students are active in directing the day's work. This can be offset by having different students prepare work for panel discussions from time to time. The purpose of the panel plan is not to reach a group decision but to air varied points of view in a courteous manner in a round table discussion. There is less formality in this method than the debate which presupposes a closed-minded contest. The object is to discover "what is right and not who wins."

*Case Conference Method.* Hypothetical cases involving personal and social relations, common to the experience of the students, are presented to them for their solution. The teacher acts as leader or referee in helping the students evaluate the factors until definite social and moral principles underlying the case are discovered. The case usually consists of a conflict between actual conditions and ideal conditions and requires considerable reflective thinking. The case centers about two or more courses of action. As long as no problem exists, the higher consciousness has nothing to do. When a problem occurs, there is a hesitancy between two or more courses of action. This method prepares students for later life to think straight in the solution of their problems because they have acquired social maturity and a sense of adequacy. The problems can be arranged in increasing complexity. One of the limitations of this method is that it requires considerable time and ingenuity on the part of the teacher to devise enough cases for conferences. A few of the newer textbooks include a series of cases for each unit of instruction.

<sup>1</sup> From an address, *The Perpetual Youth Problem*, by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, at Columbia University, September 25, 1935.

<sup>2</sup> Edward A. Fitzpatrick: *The Scholarship of Teachers In Secondary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927), p. 74.

<sup>3</sup> Harold Rugg, *American Life and the School Curriculum* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936), pp. 448, 453.

<sup>4</sup> American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), p. 69.

# Evaluation in the Social Studies

ARTHUR E. HAMALAINEN

*Northport Public Schools, Northport, New York*

In the social studies program we are working toward the attainment of fuller meanings in subject matter, of better and more worth-while attitudes toward work, elementary research, and coöperative activity, as well as the development of abilities of generalization that could not be so fully realized by other methods of teaching. If this program is to be adopted in any school and if the subject matter is to be presented in such a way as to allow for greater pupil activity in planning programs, in research, in discussion, and in all the other phases of the work, there must be an opportunity for some form of evaluation, if for no more than two reasons: (1) that the curriculum itself might be improved and the child thus aided in his learning, and (2) that the program be justified in any particular locality. If this is not done, the newer program will be haphazard and meaningless.

Teachers, as a whole, have created somewhat satisfactorily tests that cover factual material. Many printed tests have been published. Yet, for the wider, more intangible, and what seems more important aspects of social studies, little has been done in many schools in the matter of testing. We have set up new objectives and have broadened and deepened others; we have extolled pupil activity and then have gone blithely on with a sublime confidence, trusting that our objectives have been attained. But, have they? What proof have we to offer? It is this view of evaluation that needs consideration.

## ATTITUDES

How, then, shall we go about the testing of attitudes—those intangible factors that are often so elusive to even discover? Yet, if we are to be sincere in what we profess, we must at least attempt the task.

As with most other objectives, it is possible to measure attitudes by two means: (1) paper tests; (2) observation. Most paper tests are classified in three categories. First, check lists of opinions or feelings toward words, in which the pupil is given the opportunity to check a word as disagreeable or agreeable to him, or if he is uncertain of his feelings toward it. Such a list of word in the intermediate grades might include: (a) a mob, (b) war, (c) a strike, (d) Sunday School, (e) soldier, etc.<sup>1</sup> It should be possible then, to make four types of description by means of

a scale of attitudes. These are: (1) the average or mean attitude of a particular person on the issue at stake, (2) the range or position that he is willing to accept or tolerate, (3) the relative popularity of each attitude of the scale for a definite group as shown by the frequency of distribution for the group, (4) the degree of homogeneity or heterogeneity in the attitude of a designated group on the issue, as shown by the spread or dispersion of its frequency distribution.<sup>2</sup>

A second method is by the "free association" test, in which the pupil is asked to write his reaction (i.e. immediate reaction) to various words. A third way of reaching attitudes is by securing reactions to lists of statements that are controversial.

As a means of check on paper tests the validity is ascertained by: (1) Observing pupils informally in action, (2) Checking with papers written by pupils, (3) Behavior records. In this connection, the anecdotal record as a means of evaluation in the work and attitude of the pupil has been used successfully in some schools. The anecdotal record is an "attempt to evaluate the activities of the pupils based upon observation—it is a diary form of report."<sup>3</sup> The teacher takes notes in the form of (1) narrative, (2) statement, (3) action of the pupil, and on the classification of these into their proper categories, confers with the pupils for guidance. Observations do not necessarily have to be made every day, but only when outstanding examples of behavior occur. By the use of such a record, in addition to checking paper tests of attitudes, the teacher may be able to discover other attitudes not determined by paper tests, interests in social studies, habits of working coöperatively with others, initiative, and some of the abilities. One of the chief values of such a record is that it is a continuous, and to some degree, objective record of the pupils' reactions in class. It is objective to the degree that the teacher marks on such a record merely the incident as it occurs without her impression of it.

## SKILLS

Among the various skills that the social studies programs list in their objectives are those of finding information; reading understandingly; reading for entertainment; reading for general ideas; reading for evidence; reading for selected kinds of details; reading for seeing a logical organization; reading for ap-

preciation; the understanding of maps, charts, diagrams, tables, and social data of other kinds; the ability to analyze truth and to discern it; the using of information; the setting of major and minor relationships, and in some cases skill in utilizing information such as the making of charts, diagrams, tables, and maps; the remembering of information. Any program of evaluation of social studies must take into account the various factors mentioned. Since the correlation between different objectives is most often very diverse, no one single test can be expected to cover all the objectives. Evaluation must be a continuous process, and one that brings into play not only paper tests but also anecdotal records and behavior journals. Several excellent suggestions for constructing as well as securing applicable tests can be found in the *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, in Kelley and Krey's *Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies*, or from tests of the nature of those constructed by Wrightstone or the Iowa Testing Bureau.

#### MEANINGS (UNDERSTANDING)

"Understanding, as the term is used by most teachers of the social studies is an intangible value over and above knowledge of specific information or precise verbal definitions. It is one of those values which nearly all teachers recognize but few have undertaken to define."<sup>4</sup> Through the social studies program, children are expected to have broader and deeper meanings both of their life and the life about them. By the end of the intermediate grades, it is believed that the children will have a deeper comprehension of what dependence and interdependence of human beings mean, of the relationship between themselves and of their geographical and sociological environments, of man's increasing control over nature, of his tendency to move from place to place in search of higher standards of living, of the progress of democracy—to mention but a few. Thus, the testing of such meanings implies that a stress must be put first and foremost upon those facts which function in the life of the pupils. It is a truism that the type of testing performed is determined by the method of teaching. If the teaching of the social studies is formal, remote from reality, formal paper tests will most often prove an adequate measure of what results can be expected; if the program in the school is one that even pretends to resemble life and has living activities with meaningful experiences, the evaluation must surmount the limits of the paper tests.

#### GENERALIZATIONS

Finally, it is expected that the pupils will be able to perceive and to apply generalizations from facts of the social studies. In truth, there is perhaps, no greater justification for such a program—no greater

idea than that pupils will be able to utilize the facts learned and mold them into generalizations which will aid them in their daily living. Yet, there must be a caution. In the eagerness to see that generalizations are being learned, frequent use must be made of charts, graphs, and other such devices. It has been assumed that pupils generalizing from such knowledge will see the ideas behind their generalizations. Yet, this is not always true; pupils sometimes get into the habit of hasty generalizations of such a nature that they, as one teacher stated, regard everything that is modern as good, and anything the least bit old as bad. Thus, in the construction of tests that will measure this factor, care must be taken that the significance of the generalization is realized, and that the generalization is but a tentative matter relative to the amount of data possessed at the time. William James once made the pronouncement that a generalization is of no more value than the knowledge of the ideas behind it.

#### CONCLUSION

There are many principles of testing that should be borne in mind in the social studies program. However, if the following are adopted, it is felt that much progress will be made for an adequate measure of the newer program.

- (1) *Evaluation in the Social Studies should be a continuous process.* It should be so much a part of the other phases of the teaching process that pupils consider it as such and not as an ordeal. In being continuous, it provides for a more ready check of deficiencies or for better direction of positive qualities of the pupil.
- (2) *Tests should be defined in terms of pupil behavior.* It is unreasonable to test "citizenship" without reducing the term to definition of what constitutes "citizenship" on the part of the pupils. What actions, what behavior do we expect from a citizen?
- (3) *Definite agreement as to the type of behavior tested must be reached.* Teachers, in conference, or otherwise must agree among themselves as to the behavior which goes to make up the concepts tested. Since our definitions of these terms sometime vary, it is important that this agreement is reached.
- (4) *There should be an adequate sampling of what is tested.* This is, perhaps, a corollary of Number (1). Adequate testing is probably judgment based upon the accumulation of as much knowledge as feasible concerning the pupil.
- (5) *Evaluation will be determined by the type of teaching in the classroom.* The classroom that is conducted by a rigid lecture or



overemphasized recitation type of teaching will necessarily utilize tests that are rigid, remote from reality. If the program of social studies allows for the expression of the qualities mentioned above, evaluation must be on a broader basis than heretofore. It is assumed here too, that tests will be local in character as much as possible.

- (6) *Testing should be as lifelike as possible.* "School is not preparation for life, but is life itself." How often have we heard that dictum! How little have we applied it to testing! If the school is lifelike, tests must be lifelike.
- (7) *Opportunity for self-evaluation should be provided.* If there were no other virtue in a broad testing program as here conceived, it would be this—the opportunity for self-evaluation. By the use of anecdotal records,

behavior journals, and other devices mentioned, the pupil is brought to see that he has been evaluated on an objective basis; he sees more concretely wherein he has succeeded or failed, and while, he, like all other mortals may never be fully able to apply that maxim "Know Thyself," he has at least gone a step more on the road to that end.

<sup>1</sup> "The Social Studies Curriculum," *Fourteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1936), pp. 339-340.

<sup>2</sup> L. L. Thurstone, and E. J. Chave, *The Measurement of Attitude*. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929), pp. 6-7.

<sup>3</sup> J. W. Wrightstone, "Constructing An Observational Technique," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVII (October, 1935), 1-9.

<sup>4</sup> T. L. Kelley, and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies*. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), p. 5.

## The Social Studies Teacher and the Course in Occupations

ROBERT S. ELLWOOD

*Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois*

The social studies field in the secondary school is rapidly becoming as broad as life itself. New courses are constantly being added, and old ones are being changed to meet new demands. No longer is an academic training in history, political science, and economics sufficient to meet the needs of the teachers in this field. The social-studies teacher is expected to be able to teach many of the newer courses that because of popular demand are finding their way into the school. Courses in school orientation, community life, safety, and social adjustment are among the newer ones being added. Another new course that since its introduction about fifteen years ago has become fairly well established in our high schools is *occupations*.

The present paper was prepared to present a comprehensive description of the course, together with some suggestions for teaching it, and references to current books and materials that may be helpful.

The subject of occupations, or vocations as it is sometimes called, was introduced to present occupational information to the students which would provide a basis for their choice of vocations, the necessary training for which would largely determine their future school work. It was expected that as a result of this course the students' school activities would become more meaningful, that larger numbers of stu-

dents would remain in school, and that the large shifting from job to job (characteristic of American labor) would be lessened. Just how far these expectations have been realized is difficult to say. Studies in this field have been meager and contradictory.

*Present Objectives of the Course.* While still retaining the objective of assisting the students to decide on a vocation, other objectives have been developed for the course. Among these may be given:

1. Orientation to the school. (This is particularly true when the course is given the first semester in the seventh grade in a junior high school or in the ninth grade in a four year high school.)
2. To develop respect for useful labor.
3. To aid pupils to adjust themselves to working conditions.
4. To develop an understanding of the interdependence of occupations.
5. To present methods for studying occupations.
6. To stimulate and encourage interest in further education.
7. To survey vocational opportunities offered by the school.
8. To develop the ability of self-analysis.

No one course, probably, attempts to meet all of



these objectives. They do, however, appear often in courses of study and may rightly be considered as legitimate outcomes of such a course. These may be summarized in four objectives that may well constitute the comprehensive aims of a course in occupations.

1. To develop criteria for the study of occupations.
2. To assist students to plan for the future.
3. To aid students in developing an understanding of some of the major problems of work arising from the interdependences and complexities of modern life.
4. To encourage students in developing the ability of self-analysis.

Another objective that may be added is that of orienting the student to the school. This should probably be one of the purposes of the course if it is offered in the first semester of the students' work in the school and is sometimes given as a strong reason for presenting the course at that time.

*Grade Placement of the Course in Occupations.* In what year should the course be taught? It is, at present, offered in all grades from the seventh to the twelfth, inclusive, with more schools offering it in the ninth grade than in any other one year. Some schools offer a course meeting one, two, or three times a week and running over two or more years. This is the case more often in junior high schools than in the four-year and senior high schools, where it is usually a one-semester course meeting five times a week and often included as a part of the community civics course.

Three criteria may be considered in determining the year in which the course should be given.

1. It should come prior to a student's election of courses of a vocational significance.
2. It should come before large numbers of pupils leave school.<sup>1</sup>
3. It should come at the time when the student is most strongly interested in making his choice of a vocation.

It will be noticed that criteria one and three are placed on an individual basis rather than on a mass basis. This is done because it is believed that there is no uniform chronological or grade age at which students as a body are ready to make the choice of a vocation, and until the vocational choice is made it is wrong to expect them to elect courses that, for them, at least, have vocational significance. Courses that for some students may have vocational significance may be taken by others and serve purely as exploratory or cultural courses. In other words, the last criteria is probably the most vital. The course loses meaning to the students when taken before they are ready to make a choice of vocations. The course

should probably be made compulsory and should be allowed to be taken at any time during a student's years in secondary school, the student's advisors being responsible to see that he elects it at the time when he is seriously considering his future career. If he has reached his senior year without taking it, he should then be required to take it with the hope that the course will give him a basis for choosing a vocation wisely at some later date if it does not serve the purpose at the time.

It will be observed that the orientation objective mentioned earlier would have little place in a course in which students from the upper years of high school are enrolled. It is believed, moreover, that an orientation course in which the primary purpose is to enable students to adjust themselves to a school community is distinctly different from a course in occupations which has for its purpose the aim of orienting a person to life in the world of work.

*Adjustment to Students and Community.* The course should be adjusted to the individual differences of the students and should be organized in harmony with the industrial, commercial, and professional needs of the community in which the school is located. In these days of rapid and easy transportation, the community should, however, probably be considered as extending beyond the confines of the town or city in which the school is located—especially if the town is a small one and if there are one or more large cities in the neighborhood that in normal times draw upon the smaller adjacent communities for labor.

*Study of Conditions under which People Work.* The course should contain opportunity for study and discussion of the political, social, and moral conditions under which industrial, commercial, and professional life is conducted. The hygienic conditions in various industries should be considered, and the steps that society, industry, or the government have taken to relieve insanitary and otherwise unhealthful or dangerous conditions should be noted. The problems of labor and its relation to management may be observed as well as the various relations that exist between business and government. The growth of co-operatives and the effect that these may have on private commercial and manufacturing enterprises is a fruitful field for study. Many of these problems cannot be settled, yet it would be a mistake not to at least open up these questions for consideration.

*General Survey of Man's Occupational Activity.* The course should present a general survey of the ways in which man makes a living and should provide an understanding of the interdependence of the various occupations. This ought to include, therefore, an understanding that man works for society as well as the fact that society works for the individual.

In the survey of industries some classification should be followed. The classification used in making

the United States census may be followed, or other classification similar to the three following ones may be used:

- I. (1) Organization by Individual Enterprise.  
(2) Organization by Public or Governmental Enterprise.
- II. (1) Professions, (2) Engineering, (3) Commerce, (4) Accounting, (5) Advertising, (6) Manufacturing, (7) Banking, (8) Transportation, (9) Building Trades, (10) Hotel and Restaurant Keeping, (11) Mining, (12) Forestry, (13) Agriculture, (14) Civil Service, (15) Social Service, (16) Politics.
- III. (1) Agriculture, (2) Business, (3) Industry, (4) Home Making, (5) Professions.

The organization that would probably be more meaningful to the class than most others might be one in which the occupations were listed by the pupils as to types of labor, such as, mental or physical, managerial or employee, inside or outside work, skilled or unskilled, routine or varied activities; occupations in independent proprietorships or in a large corporation; positions with a limited future or with a fair opportunity for advancement; and those requiring dealings mainly with people and those dealing with things. Whatever method is used for the primary classification, others should be worked out by the teacher and class for the purpose of seeing vocations in as many different relationships as possible.

*Intensive Study of One or More Vocations.* In addition to this broad survey of the vocational field, each student in the class should make a rather intensive study of the vocation or vocations that interest him most. This should be done not only for the purpose of the pupil discovering the primary requirements and characteristics of the vocation, but also to develop a method that the student may use later in investigation of other vocations that may appeal to him.

It would be well for the class as a whole to work out the outline to be used in studying the specific occupations. The teacher should of course have a clear understanding of the vital things that should be covered and when necessary offer suggestions. The outline that is developed would probably be somewhat similar to the following:

- I. Development of the Occupation.
  - A. Brief History.
  - B. Present Status.
    1. Growing or declining industry.
    2. Extent of mechanization.
    3. Probable future.
- II. Social Significance.

- A. Necessity or Luxury.
- B. Affect of Depressions on It.
- III. Nature of the Work.
  - A. Descriptions of the Important Activities Involved.
  - B. Outline of a Day's Work.
- IV. General Working Conditions and Pay.
  - A. Fluctuations in Employment.
  - B. Number of Hours per Day, per Week.
  - C. Extent of Unionization.
  - D. Wages (per Hour, Day, Week, and Year—Figuring in Lay-offs, Strikes, and Other Interruptions)—Beginning Wages, Probable Increase.
  - E. Standard of Living Possible.
- V. Opportunity Connected with Occupation.
  - A. Opportunities for Personal Growth.
  - B. Opportunities for Advancement.
  - C. Opportunities for Promotion to other Vocations.
- VI. Physical and Social Condition of Work.
  - A. Effect of Labor on Health—Diseases Peculiar to Work.
  - B. Physical Hazards.
  - C. Energizing or Enervating.
  - D. Moral and Social Conditions.
  - E. Effect on Home Life.
  - F. Common Deficiencies and Prejudices of Workers.
- VII. Preparation Necessary.
  - A. School Training.
  - B. Apprenticeship.
  - C. Other Training — Correspondence, Helper, Etc.
  - D. Study Necessary for Advancement.
- VIII. Personal Qualifications Necessary.
  - A. Physical.
  - B. Mental.
  - C. Social.
- IX. Parallel Listing of Advantages and Disadvantages.
- X. Why I Believe I Would (or Would not) be Successful in This Occupation. (Check Personal Qualifications Necessary as Given under VIII with Those You Possess.)

*Self-Analysis.* The advantages to be gained from the use of self-analysis blanks may be fairly debated. To be sure, the results are not very reliable. Probably the greatest good that can come from them is to call the attention of the student to qualities, skills, and attitudes that are considered essential in vocational life. When checked with other estimates of the student by teachers, counselors, etc., the student's ability at self appraisal may be judged and means for aiding him to arrive at more accurate estimates may be devised.

*Study of Educational Opportunities.* As soon as a student becomes interested in a vocation, he is naturally desirous of knowing the educational opportunity open for training in that field. The student should be made acquainted with the opportunities in his particular high school, and other schools in the system, if some offer advantages not given in the school he is attending. The work offered in the colleges and universities of his city or state should be studied. In addition, the offerings of outstanding schools in the country, and, possibly, abroad, should be considered and compared with the work given in more immediate colleges. The advantages and disadvantages of the different schools should be weighed, taking into consideration the particular training offered, reputation of the university, expense, opportunities for self help when needed, special requirements for admittance and graduation, and other considerations that may fit the particular student.

Each student should be required to make definite plans for preparing for and entering his chosen vocation. These plans should include the subjects he will take during the remaining years in high school, the college or university he will attend, the courses he will pursue there, and any further training that is needed. If college or university training is not required or desired, the student should make whatever other plans are necessary for entering his vocation—such as attendance at trade schools, evening schools, apprenticeship training, serving as a helper, or the taking of correspondence work or other home study.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING THE COURSE IN OCCUPATIONS

*Socialized Procedures.* Modern methods of teaching such as various socialized procedures and the more individualistic unit-assignment method are particularly effective in teaching occupations. Socialized discussions, panel discussions, reports, and round-table conferences should characterize the classroom procedures rather than the stereotyped question and answer method. The classroom library should be complete with books on the various vocations such as those given in the references at the end of this paper. The laboratory method featuring individual work on projects and problems of special interest to the students should be used extensively.

*Visits to Commercial and Industrial Establishments and Schools.* While the number of trips that the class as a group can make to points of interest may be limited, a few such trips might well be made. These should be supplemented by individual and small group excursions to places of particular interest to the students preparing special reports on particular vocations.

A group excursion should be made early enough in the course to illustrate the technique in studying

working conditions, informal occupational analyses, and other points necessary to an intelligent understanding of things to be seen and asked about so that when individual and group trips are made the students will know how to get the most out of their experiences. The trip ought to be well planned in advance. The teacher should have visited the plant, or other point of interest, and made definite arrangements for the trip. He should be well acquainted with what is to be seen and have a clear understanding of exactly what the class should gain from the excursion. The trip should be discussed by the class the preceding day, and it ought to have clearly in mind what to look for and the general questions that should be asked. An outline of what is desired should be worked out, and each member of the class should have one. The outline may contain such items as the following:

1. Name and location of industry or plant. . . . .
2. Object of visit. . . . .
3. Proportion of employees that are men. . . . .  
     . . . . ., women. . . . ., boys. . . . .  
     . . . . ., girls. . . . .
4. Proportion of skilled. . . . ., unskilled. . . . ., and semi-skilled. . . . .  
     . . . . .workers. Routine or repetitive workers. . . . .
5. From what places does the raw material come? . . . . .
6. Has it gone through any previous processing? . . . . .
7. Where is the product marketed? . . . . .
8. What is the annual value of the product? . . . . .
9. What is the annual volume in tons, pieces, barrels, etc.? . . . . .
10. How much does each unit cost? . . . . .  
     (Adjust for each plant. Some produce a variety of products.)
11. The physical plant:
  - (a) Type of building: materials. . . . .  
     old or modern. . . . .
  - (b) Safety devices: . . . . . Is machinery guarded? . . . . . Is there an automatic sprinkler system? . . . . . Are there fire escapes? . . . . . Other provisions against fire and accidents? . . . . .
  - (c) Sanitary conditions: cleanliness—good, poor . . . . . Lighting—good, poor . . . . . Ventilation—good, poor . . . . . Is the work conducive to good health? . . . . . Are there occupational diseases to which the workers are subject? . . . . .



- (d) Notice the routing of the material. How is it accomplished to save labor? ..... What outstanding examples of labor saving machinery are being used? (Give two or three examples.) ..... Does the plant have modern machinery? ..... Find out if other plants manufacturing the same product have more or less machinery. What is its effect on employment?.....
- 12. Working conditions and welfare work:
  - (a) Average wages paid?—skilled. ...., semi-skilled ...., unskilled. ....
  - (b) Hours of work, per day. ...., per week. ....
  - (c) Fluctuation of employment—number of layoffs last year ....., affected how many people ....., length of time lost .....
  - (d) Length of regular vacation period ....., with pay ....., without pay .....
  - (e) Special education and training necessary for skilled work ....., semi-skilled work ....., unskilled work ....., How attained and where for each classification?.....<sup>3</sup>
  - (f) Do employees share in management? ..... If so, how? ..... Are they unionized? .....
  - (g) Is there a lunchroom? ..... Are rest rooms provided? ....., condition .....
  - (h) Is medical and trained nurse service provided? .....
  - (i) What arrangements are made for recreation? .....
  - (j) Is there a pension system? ....., profit sharing system? .....
- 13. Give outstanding attractions of this work.
- 14. Give outstanding drawbacks of this work.

This outline covers an entire industrial plant except for the office department. While a general survey of the plant is necessary, the work in a modern comprehensive factory is so diversified by departments that the general survey should be supplemented by special vocational studies of departments, or one department should be chosen for special study during the trip—as suggested in the footnote. Some students may wish to return to the factory later and investigate more closely the work in specialized departments. For this work a more detailed outline is necessary calling for a special analysis of the particular work being done, the training and education necessary, etc. This can be worked out in a conference of the teacher and

student. The group visit to an institution should be followed by a class interpretation of what was found. This could follow the outline used in studying the plant, supplementing it with other facts discovered.

Study of further training might well be accompanied by a visit to an educational institution of the next higher rank than the students are now attending, the junior high school students visiting the senior high school to which they will probably go, and the senior high school students visiting a neighboring college or university. Visits of this nature are often made on field days, open-house, and during athletic and literary contests. While contacts of this type are valuable, they do not give the visitors an opportunity to see the schools to as good advantage as if they had visited them during a normal school day. This is particularly true of the high school students who are visiting a university where they may hope to pursue a specialized course and where their success may depend largely upon the wisdom of their choice of schools. A successful football team or a brilliantly trained band does not necessarily mean that a university has a superior agricultural college or a good college of education. High schools should do more to aid their students to make informal visits to neighboring colleges and universities at times when the students can see classes in operation, note the equipment, and make contacts with one or more professors in the field in which they are interested. Arrangements could be made for such visits by the occupations teacher. Special things to see, questions to ask, and the like, should be planned by the group and the teacher before the trip is made. This should be done after a careful study of the college catalog so that unnecessary questions would be eliminated and, also, so that things that may not be understood in the catalog could be cleared up.

*Talks by Outside Speakers.* One of the oldest methods of providing vocational information to students has been that of inviting representatives of the various vocations to give talks to students about their work. This method has distinct advantages. However, the temptation to gloss over undesirable features is sometimes too great, and often the speaker may be able to give only a restricted picture of the field. Another weakness is that seldom are schools able to get a wide variety of occupations presented by speakers. Too often only the better known professions are represented. Where speakers are used to supplement other ways of presenting vocational information, the widest variety of occupations should be represented and great care taken in selecting the speakers.

*Interviews.* While a student is studying his particular vocation, he should be expected to observe workers on the job. In addition, he should make it a point to interview several workers in the vocation, getting as many different points of view as possible



as to the work involved, the advantages and disadvantages, the training necessary, and the probable future of the occupation. Another reason for interviewing several people is that he should not take any more time from one person than is necessary. Each interview should be carefully planned. It would be well to spend time in class—one period at least—in a socialized discussion on making interviews.

*Visual Aids.* First hand experience with occupations through visits, talks, and interviews can be supplemented with pictures, slides, and motion pictures. These latter methods are indispensable in presenting information about occupations that are not represented in the community. Such methods are also of advantage in presenting pictorially the physical equipment and activities of schools and colleges.

Motion pictures have been developed by a large number of private industrial firms for the purpose of publicity and can usually be obtained for payment of transportation charges. Films specifically designed for occupational guidance purposes are also available. The visual aid section of the references at the end of this paper lists sources of material.

*Use of Measurements.* A large number of devices—tests, rating scales, and other forms of measuring individuals—are available for guiding students. One of the first to be devised is the intelligence test. Others are vocational aptitude tests, achievement tests, character ratings, measurements of adjustment, measurements of vocational interest, and prognostic tests for subject-matter courses. It is not the purpose here to discuss these means of securing information about pupils but to suggest that they be used to supplement other methods in aiding students in choosing vocations. Students should certainly be cautioned tactfully against preparing for a vocation that studies have shown requires a high degree of intelligence or when prognostic tests indicate that their chances of achievement in a subject-matter field necessary for preparation for that vocation are slight.<sup>3</sup>

*Importance of Using Many Different Methods.* While each of the methods to be used in conducting a class in occupations discussed in this section may not be used, it should be emphasized that as many as possible should be utilized. No one procedure is adequate to present the many phases of occupational life, or even of any one occupation. Students should be encouraged to live broadly—partaking of as many kinds of curricular activities, both of the formal and informal types, as possible, consistent with a core of integrating experiences.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE

*Grade Placement.* As was suggested earlier, the course in occupations is not one that should be placed definitely in any one particular year but should be taken by a student when he becomes seriously inter-

ested in choosing a vocation. It is certainly a waste of time for students to take the course before they are ready to profit by the experience.

Because of the different age levels of the members taking the course, the work should be largely individualized instruction with discussion and reports on topics that involve general interests of the group as a whole. The differences in ages should not prove serious handicaps because the students have common interests in preparing for the future, and thinking through the problems of the course. A common interest, general worthwhileness of the material, and the diversity of methods make it one of the most inspirational courses in the high school. A suggested organization for the course follows:<sup>4</sup>

#### *Part I. The Field of Work*

- Unit 1. Why People Work—Social and Individual
- Unit II. Interdependence of Labor
- Unit III. The Fields of Work

#### *Part II. The Individual and His Job*

- Unit IV. Survey of Representative Occupations in the Fields of Work
- Unit V. Individual Study of Specific Occupations
- Unit VI. Self-Analysis in Reference to Specific Occupations
- Unit VII. Purposes of Schools
- Unit VIII. Survey of Educational Opportunities
- Unit IX. Planning the future—The Next Step

The work should include a generous mixture of socialized group discussions, individual work, conferences, interviews, talks, reports, group and individual excursions, and the use of visual aids.

#### RELATION OF TEACHERS OF OCCUPATIONS TO COUNSELORS AND ADVISERS

There should be close coöperation between counselors and student advisers and the teachers of occupations. The latter should have ready access to, if not copies of, all pertinent material of vocational value that the counselors and advisers have on individual students as soon as they enroll in their classes. This information should give them a picture of each student's school and social background, and should indicate any peculiarities and special abilities that may have been discovered. The occupations teacher should in addition supplement this with his own investigations. The classes should not be so large but that he can become well acquainted with each individual pupil so that he can advise him intelligently.

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 Electrical Research Products, Inc. New York. ("The Builders," a film showing the contribution of various workers toward the construction of a city building; "Choosing a Vocation" in which H. D. Kitson, following a lad through the various steps of choosing a vocation, illustrates procedures to be followed in selecting a vocation. Both are sound pictures.)  
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 For a list of motion picture films available from industries, consult: Kefauver, G. N., and Curtis, John W., "Visual Aids in Imparting Information," *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, Vol. VIII, December, 1929, pp. 111-120. This article lists 53 concerns having materials for distribution with 161 different occupations represented. Consult also the catalog of the Victor Anamatorgraph Corporation, Davenport, Iowa.

*Occupations Magazine*

The National Occupations Conference publishes *Occupations, the Vocational Guidance Magazine* nine times a year—October to June, inclusive.

<sup>1</sup>With the increased holding power of the secondary school, this criterion loses its significance.

<sup>2</sup>Certain parts of No. 12 are impossible for entire plants, as conditions will probably vary from department to department.

Some one department should be used as an example in these cases: wages, hours, fluctuation of employment, and education and training. Differences throughout the plant may be noted.

<sup>3</sup>It is not possible to discuss fully the use of measurements in an occupations course. The reader is referred to Chapters X and XII in L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver's *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, and other references on tests given at the end of this paper.

<sup>4</sup>It is proposed that the class and the teacher spend the first class period or two in a socialized discussion working out the plan of the course. This provides an excellent method of motivation.

## A Unit in Current Events

WILLIAM SCANLAN

*College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota*

### Introduction

The main purpose of this unit is to get boys and girls in junior high school to read intelligently the daily newspaper. If a teacher can accomplish this objective, the work will be well worth while from an educational viewpoint. Besides teaching boys and girls how to read a newspaper, it is hoped that this unit of work will make them conscious of what public opinion is and how it is formed.

There is no intention in this unit of drilling on information or on emphasizing facts. Toward the end of the year, the teacher expects to see these outcomes achieved to a reasonable degree:

1. Can the pupil read a newspaper intelligently? Does he read a newspaper outside the school-room? What does he read in the newspaper when he is left to make his own choice?
2. Does he know something about the make-up of a particular newspaper? Does he know where to find certain types of material? Does he know where the most important news is found on the front page? Does he know where the editorial page is located? Does he know what editorials are? Does he know who writes them? Does he know what the editorial policy of his particular paper is?
3. Does he have some understanding of the news collecting agencies in the world? Does he know what the important newspaper syndicates in this country are? Does he know who owns a particular paper?
4. Can the pupil express in his own words what public opinion is? Does he know how it is formed? Does he know that public opinion is plural in character? Is he conscious of the fact that there are groups in society that are

articulate? Does he appreciate the fact that there are groups in our society that are inarticulate?

5. Does the pupil appreciate the importance of freedom of the press and freedom of speech in a democratic country?
6. Does he know the difference between a fact and an opinion?
7. Does he know what propaganda is? Does it enter into the reporting of news? In what ways?
8. Is the boy or girl who has made the study of the newspaper a better citizen because of the study? Are these pupils more alert to the current problems in the political, social, and economic world in which they live?

### Using the Newspaper Effectively

It seems almost trite for a teacher to say in this day and age, "We learn by doing." However, this is where we begin. If the child is to accomplish the objectives we have set up, then, the first thing we will have to do is to decide which newspaper we are going to study. Better still, which newspapers. Then we must see that these papers get into the hands of the children.

There are innumerable articles appearing in the newspaper every day and naturally, the question arises, which articles shall the children read? To begin with, the teacher may assign to all the class certain important articles that appear on the front page of the paper. Gradually, the pupils will sense which are the important articles and why. They will soon discover that certain places in the paper are more important than others, and that important news items appear in these positions. Sometimes, articles may be chosen to fit the topic being studied in con-



nection with other work. The teacher and the pupils need to exercise common sense in deciding these questions.

The children should be encouraged to read the newspapers outside the schoolroom as well as in the school. The idea here is that they will get the very desirable habit of reading the newspaper at home. Reading at home may lead to the discussion of these vital issues with parents, with the result that both the child and his parents will become interested in a worthwhile problem.

#### *Visiting a Newspaper Building*

To stimulate interest in the make-up of a particular newspaper, it is proposed that the class shall visit a local newspaper office to see the actual making of a newspaper. Here is a chance for the teacher to plan considerable group work. The class may select certain chairmen to put inquiries to the newspaper editor as to when the class may best visit the newspaper offices. Other students may be assigned such duties as finding what materials the pupils should be on the lookout for in the various departments of the newspaper. It is suggested that if enough enthusiasm is shown and if it can be arranged, there will be the opportunity of having the class help edit the issue of the newspaper on a particular day. Student editors would have the opportunity of working in conjunction with the regular staff of the paper.

#### *The Importance of Public Opinion*

We must try to have the pupil become conscious of the fact that there is such a thing as public opinion. He should understand what public opinion is and how it works. In studying public opinion, it is important to point out that it is plural in character. In society, there are individual people, but generally speaking, these people fall into many groups locally and nationally along lines that are social, economic, religious, geographical, etc. The stand the people in a group take on any public question depends upon many factors, such as its education, the history of the group, its access to facts, its interests in the question from a self-interested point of view.

#### *Stereotypes*

The importance of stereotyped thinking in the lives of men is pointed out very well by Walter Lippmann in his book *Public Opinion*. The important thing teachers should do in this respect is not to try to prevent pupils from using stereotypes, but rather to make them conscious of the fact that they are using them, and also to make them critical of the character of the stereotypes they use and the gullibility with which they employ them. To quote from Lippmann's *Public Opinion*:

Inevitably our opinions cover a bigger space, a

longer reach of time, a greater number of things than we can directly observe. They have, therefore, to be pieced together out of what others have reported and what we can imagine.

Lippmann further points out that we use stereotypes for two reasons, (1) for economy of effort, and (2) as a defense for our own position on a particular question. The important thing is that we must be critical of our use of them and willing to revise them in the light of objective evidence.

#### *Articulate and Inarticulate Groups in Society*

There are groups in society that are articulate. That is, they are in a position to make themselves heard. The group that is in control of much of the wealth in this country represents such a group particularly. Organized labor is another. A group of this sort is in a position of advantage for it has influence over many of the avenues of communication, such as the radio, the newspaper, etc.

Among the inarticulate groups would be unorganized labor, farmers, the Negro, and the white collar workers. Children should be brought to see the position of the groups that are not strongly organized, and that represent the lower socio-economic level in society. In a democracy such as ours it is only fair that we recognize that these groups exist and have certain rights.

#### *Freedom of the Press*

In teaching the importance of freedom of the press as well as freedom of speech, opportunities will arise where the situations in Europe today will show that there is no freedom of the press in many countries. Discussions will bring out the disadvantages of getting reliable news under such circumstances. The question arises regarding propaganda. The class will try to decide if there is any propaganda on the part of newspapers in this country. Here an opportunity arises where children can bring in the papers that present the case of special groups. Here is an opportunity to look at labor papers and the papers of various special groups. Socialist and communist papers might be studied to get their point of view on certain current economic and political questions. Papers that defend the "New Deal" might be contrasted with papers that attack it.

One of the outcomes expected from this approach is that the boys and girls who have done this work will be a little more cautious about believing something simply because they have heard it, or read it, or have seen it pictured in the films.

If this unit teaches boys and girls to read the newspaper intelligently and if the desire to read the newspaper can be carried into their lives beyond the school, especially into the adult years, then it will have accomplished a great deal. Furthermore, such work with



the newspaper should result in helping to stamp out intolerance, race prejudice, and narrow patriotism.

### *Activities to Stimulate the Work*

The following activities are suggestive to stimulate interest in the work of the unit:

1. It may be suggested or required that each of the pupils keep a scrapbook in which they will enter clippings and pictures of items that are of special interest. A class scrapbook including the most interesting articles contributed by various class members will contribute to the general interest.
2. Arrange to have a bulletin board. A committee should be chosen by the class to see that important news items are placed where they can be seen.
3. Have the class study cartoons. If there is enough interest shown, the pupils can make cartoons. Pupils of junior high school age are usually delighted with this type of work.
4. Problem for discussion: What place do the following inventions have in relation to the modern daily newspaper? (a) Radio, (b) Telegraph, (c) Telephone, (d) Cables, (e) Railroad, (f) Printing Press, (g) Moving Picture Machine.
5. Have someone inquire about advertising rates in the local newspaper, a large metropolitan daily, or a popular magazine. What does this have to do with the price that people pay for a daily newspaper, or a magazine?
6. Find out the names of the leading newspapers of eight or ten of the large cities of the United States. Get copies of these newspapers and show them to the class. Discuss them.

7. Problem: Someone has said, "Washington is the sounding board of the nation." Can you explain this statement? Do you think it is true?
8. Individual project: Study a daily newspaper and observe where the news dispatches come from. Report to the class for discussion.
9. Individual project: Make a poster for the classroom or library that will stimulate others to read newspapers and magazines.

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## Writing Life Histories in History Courses

CARL G. WINTER

*Elk Grove Union High School, Elk Grove, California*

First student historians, then history students, is the way I start my United States history classes. The first assignment given to them is the writing of their life histories. This history is to start as far back as they can remember and progress to the present in chronological order, writing in all the events they feel are important in their lives.

Writing autobiographies has many values for the

students. They view themselves, perhaps for the first time, objectively and a few even value or weigh their actions and achievements. Early childhood events seem unimportant and are forgotten, while the present looms larger and more important. When our country's history is studied it is easier for the student to see why in our early history only a few events stand out while in our present history many more

events may be recorded of a period, that many minor and trivial activities are going on all the time. Writing their life stories as a series of unrelated events gives the students a feeling for the continuity of history, especially in early times when events studied are few and far between.

The teacher will find that the writing of life histories aids him in obtaining a picture of the individual pupil. This supplements records or case histories. If none of these exists, they can form the basis of case histories, although I do not feel that this is the prime purpose of the assignment.

Types of students and individual interests are easily found because students stress events in those fields of activity in which they are interested. Athletically minded students tell of their thrill or excitement in some game they won or helped win, or how they learned to swim, or how happy they were over the first fish caught. Studious students will tell of the happiness aroused by an award for scholarship. Politically minded students will recount with zest all the offices they held and what they accomplished in the office.

Frequently certain psychological traits are told which the teacher can help to correct by judicious study and aid to the individual. Shy or bashful students will tell of having stage fright, or being ridiculed, or some other embarrassing situation, which, unknown to the student has conditioned him since. The pupil sometimes is able to connect his present condition with the past event.

Life histories perform a further service to the teacher in keeping students busy while classes are being organized, books issued, etc., because this is the first assignment and is written in class. Histories of parents or localities, to be mentioned later, are given as homework to be done outside of school.

Taken as a whole the histories show how car-minded we have become for over one half of last year's histories told of the writer being in a serious car crash in which either the car was badly damaged or someone hurt to the extent that they were in the hospital for several days or had some bones broken. This percentage would not be as large in cities or many other sections, and was not as great in this year's class although over one-third mentioned auto accidents. Our school is a rural high school with almost everyone owning some kind of motor vehicle, even if only a 1915 model T Ford.

Another item, which would not surprise teachers, is that a large majority like and want to be in school. Many tell how hard it is to persuade their parents to let them come to school and what sacrifices they (the students) make to continue rather than stay home or work.

There also is a positive correlation between travel and the self-sufficiency or mental maturity of the

pupil. Those who have traveled are usually surer of themselves, less bashful, and more mature in their actions and attitudes than those whose whole life was spent in one locality.

Another tendency noticed is that a number of years ago students remembered the World War or post-war events such as the Armistice or a father or relative's home coming. This made the war a part of his generation and experiences. His feelings were rather strong in contrast to the student of today who has no knowledge of the war, feels indifferently about it, and thinks of it as something that happened very long ago. Today's generation thinks of the World War as happening soon after the Civil and Spanish American Wars, just as an older generation thought of the American Revolution and the Civil War as a unit, forgetting that eighty years passed between them. Many readers can understand this feeling better by thinking how surprised we are on Lincoln's birthday or Memorial Day when we still see veterans of the War between the States.

The next assignment is for the student to write the life history of his parents. Several cautions must be given. One, that the parents are involved only in order to aid the student in learning about the continuity of history and that the teacher is not trying to find out anything about the parents. This must be stressed, as many parents feel the assignment is a ruse to gain information about themselves. Even the best parental histories will be found to be less frank and complete than the student's. I make it a rule to treat the histories in strict confidence, read and pass them back as soon as possible and never mention them after that, even though I may make use of the stories to aid the students. Another caution is that parents are to tell their stories chronologically from infancy on. Another, that the histories are to tell only what the parents feel has been important in their lives.

Students quickly find that the outstanding events of their lives may not have made any impression on their parents. Most students find that parents never mention the same events that their children do, unless it was an event of importance in both their lives, such as graduation, a high honor won, or a serious accident or illness. This difference between parents' and children's stories can be used to show how events in history are judged in importance by the way that they affect the lives of the people. The more the effect the greater the importance of the event.

Parents' lives also show the student how important world events, such as the declaration of war or the Armistice, are remembered and used to group individual experiences around. The outside world exists at best in a haze in pupils' minds, and the parents' stories help the child to realize that he is a part of a larger world. Some pupils have told me that they

learned of interesting experiences of their parents for the first time through this assignment. Teachers will find that parents' histories will give an excellent background to the student.

This assignment is followed by one in which a grandparent's life is told or the history of the home or locality given. Most students will not be able to write a grandparent's history and therefore will write about their home. They may substitute the history of the locality as far as they can find it out.

The pupil finds the same value in writing about a grandparent as he does about his parents and he gains a still better idea of continuity of time, for the average grandparent's life will go back to the latter part of the nineteenth century. The teacher also benefits by a wider knowledge of the background of the pupil.

Those writing on the history of their home or locality discover some aspects as to how the historian works, for frequently they will interview three or

four people who have knowledge of the history of the locality. This should be suggested to them as one of the ways that they can learn about the area. Occasionally, students will ferret "old timers" of whose existence historians of a locality may not be aware, but whose knowledge and memory of early times is excellent. Some pupils produce actual title deeds to land giving its history, or go to the county courthouse, which is about fifteen miles from school, to obtain information. Much interest is aroused by having some student find two "old timers" whose stories differ, or find the oral and written accounts to be different. A little training in the use of historical judgment as to the value of evidence can then be given.

Students approach the study of United States history with a better understanding of historical problems and a better ability to assimilate history after they have had the experience of being historians themselves.

## The Opportunity of Civics Classes to Promote Student Government

As Stressed by Speakers at National Student Convention

NORMAN WILLIAMS, *Chairman*

*Committee on Publicity, National Association of Student Officers, Cooley High School, Detroit, Michigan*

Because the sixth annual convention of the National Association of Student Officers, held last June in Detroit, was a practical experiment in student government—a student government based upon the fundamentals of our national government—civics courses and their practical teachings had an important place on the program. Both student and teacher speakers presented definite and specific ways in which every school in the United States could carry out the theme of the convention: "Coöperative School Life," and could aid in developing student government, which is being promoted by the national organization with headquarters at 5835 Kimbark Avenue in Chicago, under the sponsorship of the Department of Secondary School Principals.

Several speakers presented their special beliefs on how civics classes could help in solving the problems of student government. Those who specially contributed to the convention from this point of view were: Dr. Edgar C. Johnson, principal of the University High School in Ann Arbor; Dr. R. O. Hughes, assistant director of curriculum in the Pittsburgh Public Schools; Miss Sophie Pollack, secre-

tary of the National Self-Government Association; and Miss Nellie May Quinn, principal of the Parker High School in Chicago.

In general, these national educators feel that a great deal of actual training in citizenship can be accomplished in civics classes and that simply memorizing facts about the government is inadequate. That students should have real opportunities to put into effect the principles which they learn, is certainly sound pedagogical psychology.

"'Good government and the happiness of mankind' depend primarily upon citizens who are intelligent about the problems which they must face, who have a sense of loyalty and responsibility toward that government of which they are a part, and who have had some practice in working coöperatively toward the solution of problems," stated Dr. Edgar C. Johnson.

In the high school which Dr. Johnson attended twenty-five years ago "there was no student council, no active home-room organization, almost no partnership of pupils in carrying on the activities of the school. That school seemed to feel that its responsi-



bility for 'good government' had been fulfilled when each of us had been exposed to a one-year course in what was called civil government." Responsibility, as felt by the student, was small. In fact, continued Dr. Johnson, "I used to go hunting on Saturdays—out of season—and it never occurred to me that there was any connection between civic government and respect for the game laws.

"This was twenty-five years ago, but I have a suspicion that there are schools today where the preparation of the pupils for the duties, responsibilities, and rights of citizenship hasn't progressed very much beyond the stage represented in that high school. There are still schools where pupils learn facts about government and dates of history but are led to no understanding of their duties and responsibilities as citizens and are given no opportunity to practice responsible self-government in their schools."

"The best person in the whole faculty to be the sponsor for the student council," stated Dr. R. O. Hughes, "is the civics teacher." At least, "no one has any business to teach civics unless he can sponsor such an organization."

"It is obvious that civics," continued Dr. Hughes, "if it is to function actively in real living, must be something more than a textbook study. As a writer of textbooks, you surely will not expect me to say that textbooks are unimportant. . . . We do need to have a knowledge of facts in order to give our suppositions definiteness, and to serve a foundation for the conclusions we reach as to the things that are desirable or undesirable in our political, social, and economic life."

One of the important opportunities for affording pupils real participation, stressed Dr. Hughes, is to teach them to vote. Students can also favorably influence public opinion on political candidates if their efforts are properly directed and if they use their heads instead of following their emotions. Other activities in which students may profitably participate are clean-up week, community fund campaigns, popularizing needed school-bond issues and other similar activities.

Activities upon which Dr. Hughes looks with disfavor, however, are those where students take over the activities of the mayor and common council, the city treasurer, director of public works, or some other official of some importance. "If a real problem should come up—and who can tell on what day some unexpected event might upset the general routine of any public office—it would be absolutely silly for a high school pupil to exercise actual authority in sending the police somewhere or doing something else that only the legally sworn officials of the city should have the right to do." Dr. Hughes believes greater benefits could be derived by having the students spend the day watching the city officials carry out their

regular day's routine of work.

Miss Sophie Pollack and Miss Nellie May Quinn emphasized the value of civics in the conveying of democratic ideals. The civics curriculum is definitely the place where the pupil's interests can be directed toward community life and where he can be shown what his place in society will be, they both said.

Miss Pollack stated she believes that the practical experience gained in governing a school will aid pupils to take an active part in governing the nation in adult life. She also stated a belief that many of the evils of politics now existent could be abolished in ten years if every one of the high school students now in school became really interested in their individual governments, that the spoils system would be wiped out, and that the possibility of a dictatorship or loss of freedom of speech would become extremely remote.

Numerous ways in which students all over the United States have aided their communities and gained experience for present and future governing were cited by Miss Pollack. In a town in Maine, a high school is teaching politics by discussing the warrant of the annual town meeting and voting on it; last fall in New York City a civics class spread propaganda for a new City Charter which was adopted; in Des Moines, Iowa, a civics class tried to put a city-manager plan into effect. "These few incidents point the way to a new direction our schools can take," she said.

Miss Quinn pointed out the specific way by which the Parker High School in Chicago was aiding its pupils to become good citizens. "Within our school day, through assembly programs, clubs, movies, excursions, forums, and visitations to neighboring high schools, we seriously inspect and conservatively estimate what life could be like if we as a nation were to achieve real economic coöperation. In the past year we have tried to understand important national, state and local issues."

Miss Quinn also stated that "if high schools throughout the United States were to adopt some essential pattern for experiencing students in democratic living as has been described as carried out in the Parker High School, America would soon weed out unfit leaders and substitute worthy experienced social engineers."

Thus, these speakers showed that the civics classes could do much to aid administrators in developing student government throughout the schools of the United States. But what was shown that is infinitely more important, is that civics classes offer opportunity for "internship in citizenship," an idea contributed by Dr. Edgar C. Johnson. Just as "the doctor of medicine must demonstrate his command of medical knowledge and skill as an interne," so is it "appropriate for the young citizen to experience a similar period of probation."

# The Federal Constitution as Viewed by the Newspapers of 1787

RUTH SPEICHER

Holgate High School, Holgate, Ohio

News-hawks of 1787 had no chance to report on the day by day proceedings of the convention which formulated the Constitution of the United States. For when the delegates met in Philadelphia on May 25, 1787, they astutely took precaution to avoid any premature publicity.

The report of the committee on rules placed an injunction to secrecy on debates and stated that the doors were to be closed. So carefully were these conditions observed that anyone now reading the files of the newspapers printed during the session would scarcely know that any such meeting was in progress.

Nor was this pledge to secrecy entirely lifted even at the close, for then the brief official journal of the convention was given, sealed, to Washington to be delivered to Congress only in case the Constitution was adopted. It was not until 1818 that Congress ordered the proceedings published.

This official record is scarcely more than an outline of the proceedings so that most of the facts which are known come from private correspondence and from the notes on debates kept by members, particularly those of James Madison. He sat from the first day where he could hear everything and made as complete notes as possible. These, however, were not published until 1841.

In Independence Hall during the official sessions there were no reporters, no press section, and no galleries filled with avid spectators who had obtained passes from some vulnerable official. There was no rushing in and out to check the latest developments so that the public could be kept informed.

The progress of science at this time was such that there could be no clicking of cameras, nor burst of flashlights as a delegate rose to speak, nor any grinding of news reel cameras under the glare of powerful lights.

Instead only the delegates sat in the hall and sentries stood guard at the doors. On the pavement in front, loose dirt was scattered so that the noise of passing traffic would not disturb the deliberations of the delegates.

The only actual details of the convention that were reported seem to be those which appeared in *The Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* for Mon-

day, May 28, 1787 under the Philadelphia news:

Friday at the state house in this city, seven states were fully represented in convention: these forming a quorum, they proceeded to the choice of a president, and his excellency general Washington was unanimously selected to that important station.

Major William Jackson was at the same time appointed secretary to this honourable board.

No mention is made of the fact that the meeting had been scheduled for May 14 but that not enough delegates had arrived then because of the bad weather. And of course the papers could not report the speech of Governor Randolph of Virginia four days after the convention began in which he presented a plan that later became the basis of the new Constitution.

But that there was interest in the work of these men who had started out with the idea of revising the Articles of Confederation is shown by the following discussion from *The Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* for June 28, 1787:

The present Federal convention, says a correspondent, is happily composed of men who are qualified from education, experience and profession for the great business assigned to them.

The principles, the administration or executive duties of government will be pointed out by those gentlemen who have filled or who now fill the offices of first Magistrate in several of the states—while the commercial interests of America will be faithfully represented and ably explained by the mercantile part of the convention. These gentlemen are assembled at a most fortunate period—in the midst of peace—with leisure to explore the perfections or defects of all the governments that ever existed—with the passions uncontroled by the refinements and prejudices kindled by the late war—and with a variety of experiments before them of the feebleness, tyranny, and licentiousness of our American forms of government.

Under such conditions it will not be difficult for them to frame a Federal Constitution that will suit our country. The present Confederation

may be compared to a *hut* or *tent*, accommodated to the emergencies of war—but it is now time to erect a castle of durable materials, with a tight roof and substantial bolts and bars to secure our persons and property from violence, and external injuries of all kinds. May this building rise like a pyramid upon the broad basis of the people! and may they have wisdom to see, that if they delegate a little more power to their rulers, the more liberty they will possess themselves, provided they take care to secure their sovereignty and importance by frequent elections, and rotation of offices.

Instead of the above philosophic statement, if the proceedings had been open to the public there could have been an alarming story. For on this very day, June 28, one of the delegates said that the members left the hall filled with gloom for it seemed the convention would inevitably be broken up by warring groups, the small states against the large states over the make-up of Congress.

The Virginia plan, which favored the large states, proposed that Congress should have two houses, the members of which should be apportioned according to the wealth and population of the states. The New Jersey plan, which was presented by Paterson as a direct challenge to the large states, proposed that there be only one house with the members representing the states as parts in a federal government.

In the bitterness aroused by this question as to whether the nation should be built upon a popular basis or upon a state basis, the small states threatened to withdraw and join hands with some of the European powers who were so ready to help them. There was also the possibility of the large states combining to form a separate union.

It seemed for a time that the collapse of the convention could not be prevented. Finally, however, on July 3 a compromise, which had been suggested by Franklin, was effected. His proposal was that Congress consist of two houses, the lower one to be elected according to population and to be given the right to initiate tax legislation; the upper one to give equal representation to the states. This plan prevailed.

But there were no screaming headlines in the newspapers to the effect that again Franklin had saved the country by his mediatory skill.

From this point on, known as the Great Compromise, the whole spirit of the Convention changed. After this fundamental agreement was reached other differences could be adjusted, although not without some rather heated debate. For while this group contained men of unusual intellectual brilliance and of acknowledged leadership, yet they were men with very decided and sometimes very divergent opinions.

There was some disagreement on practically every

phase of government organization. Whether there should be one executive or an executive council of three members caused difficulty. There was, however, a general feeling against having a monarch.

Some other points of difference which developed were over the methods of electing Congress, its powers, the functions of the executive, the plan for the federal courts, and the methods of amending the Constitution.

But none of this controversy reached the public during the three and one-half months of the Convention. From June on little is said in the papers until the Convention is about to adjourn. In the September 5 issue of *The Pennsylvania Gazette* appears this comment:

The year 1776 is celebrated (says a correspondent) for a revolution in favor of *Liberty*. The year 1787, it is expected, will be celebrated with equal joy, for a revolution in favor of *Government*. The impatience with which all classes of people (a few officers of government only excepted) wait to receive the new federal constitution can only be equaled by their zealous determination to support it.

The attitude toward the members is evident from the last paragraph of the same article:

We hear that the CONVENTION propose to adjourn next week, after laying America under such obligations to them for their long, painful and disinterested labours, to establish her liberty upon a permanent basis, as no time will ever cancel.

In the September 15 number of *The Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* under the Baltimore news is this statement:

A correspondent observes that as the moment is fast approaching when we will be favored with the proceedings of that truly august body, the Federal Convention, and that on a subject of the greatest moment, he hopes every one will be prepared to receive those important productions with a suitable degree of reverence impartiality and candour—and that neither party nor disappointment of office, on this occasion, may influence any amongst us, but particularly those gentlemen whom God has blessed with a greater share of genius. This body is composed of part of the greatest men in our nation, many of whom, if not all, certainly have no other motive in view but the honor and happiness of the country.

The convention closed September 17. On September 19 *The Pennsylvania Gazette* published the result of its work under the heading "Plan of the New



Federal Government." Then follows the complete text of the Constitution. There are no startling headlines, no flourishes, no impressive introduction. Here is the new plan of government. Immediately following are the two resolutions of the members to submit the plan to the country and to Congress.

After that, without extra space or headline are the following paragraphs:

On Monday last the Federal Convention closed their session, by signing the Federal Government. The States, we are told, were *unanimous* in this business. The address of his Excellency DR. FRANKLIN to the Members of the Convention, previous to this solemn transaction (a correspondent assures us) was truly pathetic and extremely sensible. The concurrence of this venerable patriot in this Government, and his strong recommendation of it, cannot fail of recommending it to all his friends in Pennsylvania.

Yesterday the frame of government was reported by the Delegates of Pennsylvania, agreeably to their instructions, to the General Assembly of this state, and read publicly, in the presence of a large crowd of citizens, who stood in the gallery of the Assembly room, and who testified the highest pleasure in seeing the great work at last perfected, which promises, when adopted, to give security, stability and dignity to the government of the United States.

The division of the power of the United States into three branches gives the sincerest satisfaction to a great majority of our citizens who have long suffered many inconveniences from being governed by a *single* legislature. All *single* governments are tyrannies . . . whether they be lodged in *one* man . . . a *few* men . . . or a *large* body of the people.

Other papers handled the event with like restraint. The news appears in *The Pennsylvania Journal* of September 19 near the bottom of the first column of the second page simply under correspondence from Philadelphia.

*The Independent Gazetteer* of the same date broke into the usual newspaper make-up of that time which was to have nothing but advertisements on the front page by moving the advertisements out of the middle column and beginning the Constitution there under the heading "Plan of the New Federal Government."

*The Freeman's Journal* has nothing else on the first page but follows the usual three column form.

*The Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* for September 19 presents the epoch making document with the greatest possible dignity by giving it the entire issue; absolutely nothing else appears in the four pages of the paper. Columns are disregarded

and the printing goes entirely across the page. Without headline, but in very large type the Preamble begins at the top of the first page. Then follows in smaller print, but yet larger than that ordinarily used in the newspapers of the period, the Constitution.

In the October 9 issue of this same paper the Boston correspondent writes:

The result of the Federal Convention has at length transpired, after a profound secrecy being observed by the members who composed it; which, at least, has done honor to their fidelity, as we believe, that scarcely another example can be adduced of the same caution among so large a number of persons.—This country, singular in everything, in her rise, progress, extent of jurisdiction, in her emancipation and liberty, we flatter ourselves, is going to exhibit a new instance of a government being firmly and indissolubly established, without the acts, violences and bloodshed, which have disgraced the annals of the eastern hemisphere.—Its acceptance will enroll the names of the WASHINGTONS and FRANKLINS, of the present age, with those of the SOLONS and NUMAS, of antiquity.

By September 26 news begins to come in to *The Pennsylvania Gazette* as to the reception of the plan in other cities:

We hear from Delaware and New Jersey, that the federal government has been received in each of those states with universal satisfaction. And it is said a majority of the citizens of New York, where it was made public last Friday, expressed their hearty concurrence in it.

The next paragraph voices an expectation concerning political parties which sounds strange to the present day reader:

In the city and neighborhood of Philadelphia, a petition to our Assembly to call a Convention in order to adopt this government, has been almost unanimously signed. The zeal of our citizens in favor of this excellent Constitution has never been equalled, but by their zeal for liberty in the year 1776. Republicans, Constitutionalists, Friends, etc. have all united in signing this petition. It is expected the new government will abolish party, and make us, once more, Members of one great political Family.

The story continues by referring to what has always seemed important to Americans, the attitude of Europe:

The inhabitants of the old world (says a correspondent) have long been looking at America, to see whether liberty and a republi-

can form of government are worth contending for. The United States are at last about to try the experiment. They have formed a constitution, which has all the excellencies, without any of the defects, of the European governments. This constitution has been pronounced by able judges to be the *wisest, most free* and most efficient, of any form of government that ancient or modern times have produced. The gratitude of ages, only, can repay the enlightened and illustrious patriots, for the toil and time they have bestowed in framing it.

A little farther down in the column appears the first suggestion for the first president:

GEORGE WASHINGTON, Esq. has already been destined by a thousand voices, to fill the place of the first President of the United States, under the new frame of government. While the deliverers of a nation in other countries have hewn out a way to power with the sword, or seized upon it by stratagems and fraud, our illustrious Hero peaceably retired to his farm after the war, from whence it is expected he will be called, by the suffrages of three millions of people, to govern that country by his wisdom (agreeably to fixed laws) which he had previously made free by his arms. . . . Can Europe boast of such a man? . . . or can the history of the world show an instance of such a voluntary compact between the *Deliverer* and the delivered of any country, as will probably soon take place in the United States.

The possibility of danger involved in choosing a famous man is not ignored:

Danger from the influence of *Great Men* (concludes our correspondent) is only to be feared in single governments, where a trifling weight often turns the scale of power. In a compound government, such as that now recommended by the Convention, the talents, ambition, and even avarice of great men, are so balanced, restrained and opposed, that they can only be employed in promoting the good of the community. Like a mill-race, it will convey off waters which would otherwise produce freshes and destruction, in such a manner as only to produce fruitfulness, beauty and plenty in the adjacent country.

At the bottom of the last column of the third page of this same issue is this statement:

A few Copies of the *Plan of the new Federal Government* may be had of the Printers.

In *The Pennsylvania Gazette* for October 3 the Philadelphia correspondent reports that the General Assembly had adopted a resolution calling for a con-

vention to consider the proposed Federal Constitution:

From the time the resolution of Congress was passed till its adoption by the state of Pennsylvania was only twenty hours. . . . Such is the zeal of Pennsylvania to show her attachment to a vigorous, free and wise frame of national government.

There was great rejoicing in the city over this act. There was also some criticism of the members of the Assembly who voted against the resolution:

A Philadelphia mechanic, who heard one of the members who objected to calling a Convention say, that he did not like to have the new Constitution of the United States "crammed down our throats," very justly remarked to a circle of his friends afterwards, . . . "If Mr. F. . . ." said he, "had had no victuals to *cram down his throat* but what he had procured with borrowed money, or upon credit, as has been my case for three months past, and solely from the decay of trade occasioned by the want of a good federal government, he would not require three or four months to consider of the new Constitution. . . ." The case of this honest mechanic is the case of many thousands of our citizens. Nothing can save them from ruin, but the adoption of the new government.

On October 10 the discussion of the new plan fills six columns of the *Gazette*. Views both favorable and unfavorable are given. The editor concludes with a statement that in its italicized words carries a hint of the ironic style common to modern paragraphs:

. . . we may assert that the new government of the United States will be adopted, since the Ministers and Christians of all denominations are now engaged in praying for it, and there is good reason to believe that *no prayers* have as yet been offered up against it.

Through the succeeding weeks there are frequent suggestions of the hope that the distress and confusion in the land would be alleviated by the adoption of this government.

Some idea of the political conditions in the state governments may be inferred from this strange item which appeared in the *Gazette* on November 21:

The late numerous applications for offices in this city produced the following curious advertisement a few days ago, at the door of a public house.—"GENTEEL LODGINGS for Office-hunters to be had near the State-house, where they may conveniently wait for the fittings and rings of the Supreme Executive Council.—PRINTED LISTS furnished *gratis*, of the

names of the members of the Executive Council with an exact account of the houses in which they lodge, and of the persons who have most influence over their votes."

On December 12, 1787 the Pennsylvania Convention voted forty-six to twenty-three to "assent to and ratify the Constitution agreed to on the 17th of September last, by the Convention of the United States of America, held at Philadelphia."

On Thursday at the Court House the ratification of the Constitution "was read amidst the acclamations of a great concourse of citizens.—A detachment of the Militia train of Artillery (in uniform) fired a federal salute, and the bells of Christ Church were rung on this joyful occasion."

Further description is then given of the general demonstration and rejoicing.

That all was not done in too serious a vein is apparent from the excerpt taken from the same paper as the above, December 19:

On the evening of the public rejoicing for the ratification of the federal Constitution, a number of ship-carpenters and sailors conducted a boat, on a waggon drawn by five horses, through the city, to the great amusement of many thousand spectators. On their way through the different streets, they frequently threw a sounding line, and cried out, "three and twenty fathoms,—*foul* bottom,"—and in other places, "six and forty fathoms,—*sound* bottom—safe anchorage,"—alluding to the numbers that composed the minority and majority of the late Convention of Pennsylvania, which ratified the federal Constitution.

## Alsace-Lorraine, the Perpetual Battlefield

WILLIAM J. CHAPITIS

*Menasha High School, Menasha, Wisconsin*

With one disarmament conference after another and with general chaos arising from the World War debts, we find the suspicions of the world powers developing into anything but peaceful intents. The recent war in Ethiopia and the present one in Spain add credence to the prophecy that Western Europe will soon again be a battlefield. The advance of Hitler's troops into forbidden territory on the banks of the Rhine still threatens like an ill-foreboding cloud.

The high school pupil, marching through Gaul with Caesar's legions, regards Alsace-Lorraine as the arena of arenas, dedicated to history by his hero in the hectic summer of 58 B.C. To the same "legionnaire" it is a plausible theory that had Caesar sent a laconic message to Rome at the end of his first Gallic year, it might have been to this effect: "Veni; vidi; vici vix." Moreover, this pupil, if asked where another war might be fought, would reply readily: "Should Caesar be going into Gaul today, he would inform his legions that across the Alps lies Alsace-Lorraine." Let us check up on this youthful Cassandria.

From the beginning of tribal jealousies and nationalistic consciousness, the Rock of Gibraltar and Constantinople have been the points of contention for the vestibular command of the Mediterranean and Black seas. Likewise, Alsace-Lorraine has been the nest of

inland pandemonium among the Gallic tribes for the ownership of its rich soil, among the later duchies and palatinates for political prominence, and finally between Germany and France for a protective bulwark.

A brief examination of the physical map of western Europe will readily bring a clear understanding of the geographical importance of Alsace-Lorraine. These twin provinces lie in about the exact center of inland communication between the eastern and western parts of northern Europe. More than that, Alsace itself includes the valley of the small river Ill (whence the name of Ill-Sass or Alsace most probably originated), which land as Caesar was informed by Divitiacus, the mouth-piece of the depressed Sequanians, was the most fertile of all Gaul. This valley, bounded on the east by the Rhine and on the west by the Vosges Mountains, provides a ready entrance over the Rhine into the Black (Hercynian) Forests of Germany (a possible background for a German Argonne). On the other hand, there is an immediate descent down onto the plains of France from the Vosges range.

Lorraine, neighboring on the north and west, is a vital appendage to Alsace, because it contains the two branches of the River Moselle (valuable as barriers in times of invasion and connected to the



Rhine). Lorraine is also valuable in that it adds to the advantageousness of the position by giving the combined provinces the western as well as the eastern side of the mountains for a natural protective barrier. Consequently, Germany has always been desirous of having Alsace-Lorraine to push the frontier away from the Rhine and to have a ready slope for sliding down into France in the event of an emergency; whereas France has ceaselessly done her utmost to include the Vosges heights and to keep the Teutons at bay across the Rhine.

Alsace-Lorraine, as a whole, is bounded on the north by Bavaria, Prussia, Luxembourg, and France; on the south by Switzerland and France; on the east by the grand duchy of Baden; and on the west by France. It is obvious that a country, bounded by such a varied and curved line, is destined to arouse turmoil. The part of Alsace-Lorraine that was surrendered to Germany after the Franco-Prussian War consisted of the Department of the Lower Rhine, Department of the Upper Rhine minus Belfort, three-fourths of the Department of Moselle, one-third of the Department of Meurthe, and two cantons of the Vosges.

Not only has Alsace-Lorraine had these troublesome boundaries and divisions, but since she is rich in mineral deposits, she made a valuable ally for the supply of munitions and other mining products.

Throughout this discussion let us bear in mind that if Alsace-Lorraine was not always the actual scene of battles comprising the wars that swarmed about these provinces, it was almost invariably the small determinant that caused the wars. Moreover, Alsace-Lorraine was the point at issue in nearly all the oral battles of the series of peace treaties in that region. Alsace-Lorraine has often been the "little fellow" who talked up the trouble and then let the two "big boys," Germany and France, have it out with each other. But being unavoidably situated in the middle of the ring, Alsace-Lorraine suffered much from the heedless blows, like the referee often emerging with more scars than the two conditioned pugilists of a match.

There are no written records of Alsace-Lorraine, dealing with the time prior to the advent of Caesar into Gaul; but the later excavations and the discovery of certain ruins and buried weapons are silent testimony to the absence of peace in that part of the world. The Heidenmaier Wall in the Vosges Mountains is a lasting witness to the unrest which prevailed in Alsace-Lorraine. Strasbourg (Argentoratum) was always fortified; its importance as a defensive center is further to be noted in that the Romans had three main military highways meeting in this city. The fact that there are no traces of Roman theatres, arches or aqueducts, is another sign of the insecurity of Alsace. In other words, these provinces were the headquar-

ters of military business, while the residential sections were situated in the less troublesome parts of Gaul. Ever since the inhabitation of northern Europe, Alsace was the melting pot, ever seething with the continual tribal transmigrations. It has been the bottom of a huge maelstrom, into which the restless nations of Europe were drawn in concentrated contention.

After Caesar had successfully punished the Helvetians in 58 B.C., the Sequani came to him to complain that Ariovistus had already seized one-third of their territory; that third part was a portion of Alsace-Lorraine. Ariovistus' own camp at that time was located at modern Strasbourg. Caesar's first move was to take the redoubtable position of Vesontio on the River Doubs before Ariovistus would remove his headquarters there. With this accomplished, Caesar, under the guidance of Divitiacus, marched north and encamped at the foot of the Vosges. Ariovistus, not to be outdone, moved forward with the hope of cutting off the Romans from their supplies. The famous debate between the two rivals was held on the plains of the valley of Alsace. From the fear arising among the tried legionaries, we can easily conjecture in what a position of dread the inhabitants themselves were placed. Caesar, upon learning of Ariovistus' superstitions about the moon, immediately followed him up to administer decisively the telling stroke to his deadly enemy in the Battle of Ochsenfeld. Alsace was no safe territory for the Teutons who betook themselves across the Rhine. Knowing well that Alsace was by no means an absolutely pacified country, Caesar wintered his forces south of Alsace in the naturally defended town of Vesontio.

Modern Lorraine was then occupied by the Mediomatrici, the Leuci, and the dangerous Treveri. Among these latter Indutiomarus, jealous of both Cingetorix and of the Roman dominion in Gaul, was busy stirring up trouble all during 53 B.C. It was through his persuasion that the Aduatuci and the Eburones inflicted the Disaster at Aduatua upon the Romans. When Labienus was sent to the territory of the Treveri, Indutiomarus gathered together his own forces and those of his allies, and with his cavalry came thundering over the plains of Lorraine to oust Labienus. The Romans, after stalling purposely, sallied out upon them to their surprise and sent the enemy back over the same plains where Indutiomarus was slain. And it was not far north of Strasbourg that Caesar crossed the Rhine during his fourth and sixth years in Gaul.

During 17-16 B.C. the Germans administered so serious a defeat to Lollius that Augustus and Tiberius hurried to Gaul and through Alsace-Lorraine to repel the same Germans. It can be seen from this that Alsace-Lorraine, situated on the German border, was to be a lasting scene of boundary skirmishes and a later doorway for the Teuton barbarians to pour into

the Roman Empire. A strong military garrison was stationed here, while Tiberius and Drusus marched triumphantly through Gaul and Lombardy in 15 B.C. In the course of 12-9 B.C. Drusus battled with the Germans, the Sugambri, and the Usipites, making Alsace-Lorraine as much as ever a military center. During this same period it was not simply a matter of displaying the ingenuity of Roman engineering to construct fifty fortresses from the lower Rhine to Strasbourg; and the gates of Janus had been shut in 13 B.C.! We find Tiberius crossing the Rhine in 9 B.C. and marching successfully into Germany to drive back the Teutons from their proximity to Alsace-Lorraine. So important a maneuver was this that a Triumph was declared at Rome for Tiberius. In 3 B.C. it was a common topic of conversation around the Forum and banquets that there was now peace throughout the empire, except for minor troubles along the German border.

Following the Roman colonization of Alsace-Lorraine peace was comparatively short-lived. Aurelian campaigned along the Rhine from 260-268 A.D. In the third century A.D. a slow conquest of the provinces was obviously being effected by the immigration of mostly Teutonic elements. In 357 A.D. Julian the Philosopher checked the German invasion of Alsace. No recorded battles took place there until the fifth century; but from the character of the country it is easy to see that numerous skirmishes of a local type took place at intervals. From the names of the towns as Seltz, Merzig, Metz, Bolchen, Strasbourg, Schlettstadt, and Mulhausen, we can see that the predominating and gradual civilization up to 800 A.D. was decidedly influenced by Teutonic migrations. From the following quotation, all that we can gather about Alsace-Lorraine is that it was a land of different struggling human elements:

Three castles in one mountain;  
Three churches in one churchyard;  
Three cities in one valley.

In the first half of the fifth century came the first concerted invasions and ravages of Alsace-Lorraine by the Burgundians, since Julian the Philosopher had repulsed the Germans. About 450 A.D. Attila destroyed Strasbourg and drove the Alsations to their seclusions in the Vosges Mountains. With Attila's departure, the Alsations descended only to find a disheartening scene of ruins. From then on Alsace-Lorraine became one of the chief avenues for the Teutonic invasions which led to the downfall of the Roman Empire in 476 A.D.

Towards the beginning of the ninth century the Frankish emperors of Gaul recognized the individuality of Alsace to the extent of making it a duchy. At Strasbourg there was a duchy and a bishopric, partly provincial and partly Christian—still a sign

of unsettlement. It is at this time that many of the legends of Alsace-Lorraine, similar to those of the Spanish Granada, concerning chivalry began. These must have been times of hustle and bustle there, for we know that legends and mythology are the outgrowth of motivating surroundings. Religion was always a most trying problem, due to the unstable mentalities of the Celtic exponents. By way of a general statement, we can say that Alsace-Lorraine was under Teutonic control from the sixth to the sixteenth century, under independent duchies till the eighteenth, under France from 1766 till 1871, and then under Germany until 1918 when it passed into French hands again.

The waters of the Rhine were to see little peace. In 496 the Alemannians crossed the Rhine out of the Black Forests. At Tolbiac, north of Alsace, Clovis defeated the invaders. Pepin encountered the Germans in a series of battles along the river. Many of Charlemagne's campaigns were directed at the Saxons and Bavarians. In 778 the Saxons pillaged the villages from Duitz to the confluence of the Moselle and threatened Alsace-Lorraine, until Charlemagne finally subjugated them.

By the Treaty of Verdun (French Lorraine) in 843 the empire of the Franks was divided among the three grandsons of Charlemagne. Charles the Bald received most of modern France; Louis the German got the territory between the Rhine and the Elbe rivers; while Lothaire became the ruler of the middle kingdom, Lotharii (Lotharingini, Lothringen, then Lorraine) including Alsace, which, for the most part, had been a frontier country. For several years Charles and Louis had combined their forces against Lothaire in petty warfare in and about Alsace-Lorraine. The Bi-lingual Oath of Strasbourg (842) had shown the decided intentions of the German and the Frank ousting Lothaire who was given a reduced control of the Italian provinces. In the Treaty of Verdun that part of the Lotharii, now known as Lorraine, was created as a buffer state under the weaker Lothaire—a scene for anything but peace.

In 870 Louis the German took possession of Alsace and a part of Lorraine, making the Vosges Mountains Germany's southwestern boundary. (870 is often considered as the present German state's birth.) Between 910 and 954 the Hungarian hordes were penetrating into Alsace-Lorraine. In 922 Henry (I) the Fowler conquered Lorraine and added it to his German kingdom. In 962 a good portion of this region became a part of the German Holy Roman Empire, under the duchies of Suabia and Alamania.

For a time, beginning with 1152, the fealty of this region was due to Frederick Barbarossa. Moreover, Charles had made Colmar and Schledstadt two of his residences; and the resulting obedience was due to the fact that there was much talk about making one

of these the capital of the empire. In the same twelfth century ten independent towns came into being together with the city of Strasbourg, thus providing themselves with the means of opposition to the lords. The powerful city of Strasbourg strongly opposed the imperial election and was severely punished at the election of the opposed candidate. Only in the twelfth century previous to this obstinacy of Strasbourg had the House of Hohenstaufen been popular because of the municipal franchises granted to the ten free cities of the Decapolis.

Time and again the imperial officers were defied by the barons of the free towns, who had themselves well fortified in the Vosges Mountains. In Alsace alone there were five counties, twenty-two lesser seignories, a large number of fiefs, two hundred feudal castles (mostly in the Vosges region), and numerous churches. Evidently, even if no Waterloos or Shilohs were fought there, petty and disturbing sallies were frequent. In 1470 two gauens were created in Alsace, Sungau including Strasbourg, and Nordgau, under the Hapsburgs. At this time there was a struggle between the free towns and the imperial power, ending with the towns having the right of appeal to the Diet. All the while religion had a stronger power than political government. The bishops of Basel and Strasbourg were the *de facto* rulers, when it came to exerting influence. In the absence of a political unity arising from persistent trouble, there was a more definite bond of unity in religious matters.

In 1471 Sigismund of Austria mortgaged his rights over his holdings in Alsace-Lorraine to Charles of Burgundy. Since Sigismund—in financial straits—could get no help from Louis XI, due to the latter's fear of the Swiss, Charles of Burgundy loaned him the 10,000 florins with the hope of making his Netherlands another middle kingdom. Charles' governor of the newly acquired territory, by trying to reduce the free towns to the same terms as the mortgaged land, aroused such an enmity toward Charles that in 1477 Sigismund had little difficulty in regaining the province for the Hapsburgs. Since Charles, desirous of having this land annexed to the Netherlands for all time, refused to take the sum of the loan, this debt has not been settled to this day.

Until this time and later on in the shifting of the French and German dominion of these provinces, it can be easily inferred that Alsace-Lorraine was no peaceful place for one wishing to lead a quiet and prosperous life. The best course has often been to take what belongings a person could and to leave the place to the military and political puppets as the arena of their ruthlessness. As late as 1538 we find Calvin betaking himself as an exile from Geneva to Strasbourg; most likely because of its unsettled state he would find no one there interested enough in

bothering with a religious zealot.

The Convention of Friedwald (1552) made Lorraine a part of France. Montmorency in 1532 had already conquered for Henry II the cities of Metz, Verdun, and Loue in this land. In the Rebellion of the Protestant Princes, Maurice of Saxony, in spite of his being a Lutheran, aided the Emperor and as a reward was made an Elector. Then to regain his former Protestant prestige he turned against the same Emperor Charles V and compelled him to agree with the Religious Peace of Augsburg (1555). Since the rebellious Maurice had received help from France, he reciprocated by handing over the captured towns of Verdun, Toul, and Metz to the French king, thus giving the French definite rule in Lorraine. From 1512 to this time the Guise family, descended from a duke of Lorraine, had continually favored Metz for France instead of Charles V in order to ingratiate itself with Francis I. Four years later Metz was fully placed in French possession by the Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis (1559).

From 1635 Richelieu following up this bit of French success, entered the Thirty Years War to wrest Alsace from the Holy Roman Empire. In this period we see a decidedly French domination arising in Alsace-Lorraine. The Treaty of Westphalia (1648) gave Alsace, with the exception of the free city of Strasbourg, to France. Alsace was taken over for France by the German prince, Bernard de Saxe-Weimar, in return for French aid. During the War of the Austrian Succession, France was most careful in protecting Alsace-Lorraine from Austrian invasion, since she knew it to be a most probable place of attack. In 1659 the Peace of the Pyrenees had recognized France as the protector of the Duchy of Lorraine. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) made Francis of Lorraine successor to Charles VII as Holy Roman Emperor.

To give the Austrian hold on Alsace-Lorraine in a single paragraph we had to go ahead of what had happened in the meantime. In 1672 Louis XIV declared war on Holland on the uncertain grounds that the Duke of Lorraine was plotting with the Dutch against the French; in addition to this the Dutch had strongly opposed the French accession of lands neighboring on Holland. Consequently the French seized the Duchy of Lorraine. With the Treaty of Nijmegen (1678) France persisted in her possession of Lorraine. Then to further making France a continental power, Louis XIV through the agency of the Chambers of Reunion took twenty towns of the Holy Roman Empire, including the Alsatian Strasbourg. In 1681 the armed resistance of the Emperor was quelled by the French; and Vauban, the eminent French engineer, made Strasbourg the strongest fortress on the Rhine. In the course of a conflict between France and Austria combined against Prussia in 1792,



the "Marseillaise" (more a military song than a national anthem) was written at the same Strasbourg.

After the War of the League of Augsburg the Treaty of Ryswick (1697) took from France what cities had been allotted to Louis XIV, with the exception of Strasbourg. France's dominion over Alsace was recognized, but Lorraine was restored to its duke. Louis' pride was irritated all too much. But then he ceded Lorraine only because he had his eager eyes on the richer possessions of the Spanish king who was rapidly declining in health without a strong ruler to fill his place immediately.

Ever since the time that Ariovistus had made Caesar a bid for a treaty and received nothing in reply but an unconditional surrender, Alsace-Lorraine has been the chief item of numberless treaties. The point is that a land about which peace treaties are continually being made is by no means a land whose inhabitants are enjoying peace. The shifting of the control of these two provinces from one ruler to another with a change in treatment each time is far worse than if one permanently decisive war were fought within its own boundaries.

Peace was impossible as long as a dispute over Alsace-Lorraine could be invented. From 1733 to 1738 Cardinal Fleury was dragged into a war with Austria and Russia over the election of a Polish king. France supported a Pole, Stanislaus Lesczinski, father-in-law to the ruling Louis XV of France. France was defeated and Louis had to be satisfied with securing Lorraine alone.

The character of the Alsations has been a martial one. In 1799 at the threat of war the fortresses along the Rhine were strengthened. L'Arc de Triomphe bears the names of twenty-eight Alsatian generals of the Napoleonic wars. In 1813 the Teuton watchword was "The Rhine is a German river and not Germany's boundary." This of itself suggests the controversial nature of the land. In 1842 rumors of friendly relations with the Germans arose from the fact that the German delegates to the Scientific Congress of France at Strasbourg were cordially received. Alsace-Lorraine accepted the second republic of France in 1848. During the time of the second empire Alsace was the hotbed of republican resistance. Many Alsations served under Louis Philippe in Algeria. The siding of Alsace-Lorraine with France in 1870 made trouble there after Germany emerged victoriously in 1871. The warlike circumstances of the country could not help but make the Alsations a military people.

Following the Seven Weeks' War, France and Bismarck could not come to a satisfactory agreement; and with dissension amassing itself came the Franco-Prussian War. Alsace-Lorraine became the stage for another war as rapid as the one in the heyday of Caesar. In 1870 Marshall MacMahon was summoned from Algeria to take command of the French forces

at Strasbourg. He was so severely beaten by the Crown Prince Frederick of Prussia that he retreated until he reached Chalons in France. On August 18, 1870 the German Moltke defeated the French army of the Rhine under Marshall Bozaine in the gory battle of Gravelotte in Lorraine. This German victory shut up the powerful fortress of Metz.

Meanwhile Napoleon III met MacMahon on the road and took to a combined retreat to defend Paris itself. Hereupon the French Empress Eugénie sent word to Napoleon that defeat would spell the end of the Bonaparte Dynasty and that they must defend the fortress of Metz. They feared making an advance into Lorraine and so betook themselves down the Meuse; at Sedan, after losing 25,000 men, the French surrendered the remaining 81,000; and the royal dynasty of Napoleon III was at an end.

After this catastrophe of September, 1870, the French republicans rose and continued the war during the rest of 1870 and into 1871, after their refusal to cede a single inch of Alsace-Lorraine or any other territory. In the same month as that of the surrender of Sedan, Strasbourg itself followed suit. Bozaine, after inflicting much suffering on the French in holding out, hoisted the white flag over the ramparts of Metz.

In the Treaty of Frankfort (1871) Germany took all of Alsace (except Belfort) and eastern Lorraine together with the fortresses of Metz and Strasbourg which had for a time interfered with a signal victory for the Germans. France was also obliged to pay the exorbitant indemnity of five billion francs.

Up to this time we have been speaking of these two provinces as Alsace-Lorraine instead of Alsace and Lorraine, because of a strong force of habit. But, as a matter of fact, it was not until 1871 that Bismarck amalgamated them into the hyphenated Siamese twins of Alsace-Lorraine, which, to our ears now, are inseparable names. Just as Caesar had wished to make the territory of the defeated Helvetians an excellent buffer state against invasion from the north, so Bismarck insisted on Alsace-Lorraine as an ever-ready battering-ram threatening any French uprising.

The outcome of this war was none too favorable for the future. A never-to-be-sweetened bitterness arose between the two nations. The sharp opposition of many against German rule made it necessary for the ill-disposed Alsations to transfer their residences from Alsace-Lorraine by October 1, 1872. Alsace-Lorraine found its people in a most divided loyalty, whence comes the sentimental French interpretation of the situation:

Français ne peux;  
Allemand ne veux;  
Je suis Alsacien.

In 1871 Bismarck had laughed down the French offer of their colonies for the return of Alsace-Lor-

raine. Members of the Reichstag from Alsace-Lorraine steadily expressed their resistance to the Germanization of the provinces. The French novel, "Les Oberlé," is a vivid picture of this feeling. Not even could a grant for a more local autonomy reconcile the majority as late as 1911. Thus France kept wishing for her provinces; while Germany persisted in trying to make a perpetual province of them.

As a further result, nearly all of Europe interpreted this as a warning to prepare for the future; and thus, being in a state of preparedness, the nations of Europe all the more eagerly entered upon the World War. Germany was more anxious than any other power, because she sensed that France would try to regain Alsace-Lorraine. Germany refused to consider the balance of power unless France definitely renounced even her ambitions to re-acquire Alsace-Lorraine. France herself built fortress after fortress along the frontier from Belfort to Verdun. Germany made Alsace-Lorraine almost an absolute military basin with one of her largest armies there in continual training, marking time till only the trumpet's least blare would hasten her to fight the Allies. The World War was inevitable.

As early as 1887 after the Franco-Prussian War the Boulanger Movement tended to a possible war with Germany. Many Alsations in the League of Patriots were condemned for high treason. In January 1914 the Affair of Grafenstaden and the trouble at Saverne made matters worse for the Alsations. About 30,000 Alsations mobilized by the Germans went over to the French side in the World War.

In 1914, simultaneously with the German drive to Paris by way of Belgium, the Teutons rushed their forces from Alsace-Lorraine against the French frontier of forts from Belfort to Verdun to divide the enemy's troops as Caesar had done in his campaigns against the Veneti and the Belgae. Belfort, which prior to 1871 was a part of Alsace proper, suffered from the cannonading that took place between it and Mulhouse. In February and September of 1916 the forces of General Petain and the Crown Prince met at Verdun in one of the bloodiest battles of the war. The summer of 1917 again saw hostilities at Verdun (Divodurum). Metz (forty-three miles from Verdun in the confiscated part of Lorraine) was often threatened. It took no broadcasting station to bring the sound of rumbling cannon into Alsace-Lorraine. Finally, in 1917 when the Allies succeeded in cutting off the supply railway of the Germans in Alsace, they hurried the advent of the Armistice.

Although Alsace-Lorraine did not see much of the actual fighting in this war, still projecting into France like the prow of a vessel facing the contentious waves about it, it was in no way a paradise. The Germans took care that it should remain intact as a valuable basin for military preparations. In 1914 the Alsations

were far from being pro-German and the Teutons were aware of this. About 6,000 suspects were arrested; and when another army from Germany proper came to cross the Rhine into Alsace-Lorraine, the officers informed their men that they were entering hostile territory.

We can easily picture the busy condition of the provinces in providing supplies "in forced marches." During the war, an American officer came to an assembly to deliver a talk, entitled "The Army at the Front." After telling for two hours about the various methods of producing gunpowder, military clothing, food and shelter for the front, he made the brief concluding remark, "And, oh, yes, there are the soldiers at the front who use these articles." Such was the position of Alsace-Lorraine during the war.

Long before the war was over the Allies manifested their eagerness for getting territory as a gain. In the London Pact (1915) and in the consequent secret sessions Great Britain was to get the German colonies; Russia was to receive Constantinople and the Germanized parts of Poland; while most of all, France was to regain Alsace-Lorraine.

Following the Armistice, among the first announcements of President Wilson's Fourteen Points was the reparation of Prussian wrongs done to France in the Franco-Prussian War and the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine. In Wilson's later compromises the same item was repeated with the right of the French to occupy the Teutonic Saar basin for fifteen years. Finally, the Treaty of Versailles (June 28, 1919) officially replaced Alsace-Lorraine so that the colonization of it as a French province had to begin all over again, much to the displeasure of the Germans who had made homes there during the time from 1871. France refused to give a plebiscite.

There is much unrest in Alsace-Lorraine to this day in spite of the experience-taught lessons to the French to deal more open-mindedly with her subjects. Religion is still a problem there. Many of the conservative Alsations look suspiciously at the newly instituted public schools where both French and German are taught. Somehow or other Strasbourg seems to be the scene of clashes between rival civilizations. France is attempting to put an end to the swaying back and forth of Alsace-Lorraine with it in her own hands. Moreover, she is attempting to make these provinces a conductor of peace between the two nations. But Germany, being a gifted nation, cannot help but become powerful again. With a rise in power and a lively memory of the past war, her desire to regain Alsace-Lorraine will be keen to make it stop swaying back and forth with its domain in her possession, and to charge it as a conductor of her peace between the two nations! The Rubicon has not yet dried up; another die might be cast. Alsace-Lorraine may be the future roadway of Germany's prom-

ised punishment of Italy for her withdrawal from the Teutons. Or, in this paradoxical world where the highly inflammable combination of hydrogen and oxygen resolve themselves into fire-extinguishing water, will Alsace-Lorraine one day be the center of the world's peace?

The land of Alsace-Lorraine is still more "the most fertile in all Gaul," when we see how it has been enriched with the flow of human blood and the wearing away of endless military boots in its mud. Yet, what is the use of its fertility if it hardly ever has been given peace enough to yield its acres of ripened corn? With ready prayers for relief from another war, the Alsations may here utter a temporary amen to the words of Omar Khayyam:

I sometimes think that never blows so red  
The Rose as where some buried Caesar bled.

Doings create news; news is rapidly spread abroad; a place of doings becomes a subject of interest; such a place influences the world about it; and Alsace-Lorraine certainly has had her doings. After Caesar had opened Gaul to Roman civilization, Alsace-Lorraine, the center of three military roads, was the marketplace whence Roman culture was delivered to

the surrounding people. The Bi-lingual Oath of Strasbourg first indicated that a good measure of Roman and Latin were being inevitably stirred into the melting pot of European civilization. Just as Alsace-Lorraine has been a place of motivating activities, so was it one of the firmest stepping stones of Roman culture. —Will Alsace-Lorraine again be the stepping stone for the heels of Mars?—Is our youthful Cassandra justified in having more than theoretical suspicions of it?

Just recently Hitler's shock troops revisited the forbidden territories on the very banks of the Rhine; they seemed to have thoughts similar to those of the Helvetians back in 58 B.C. It was more than a mysterious voice that warned the French Pompeys to stamp their foot. The student once again finds Caesar quite modern; perhaps he even wonders if another Napoleon may be on a ridge of the Vosges studying the topography with Caesar's *Commentaries* for a guide book.

Let us hope that some day this arena of western Europe may become the classroom for the promotion of world peace, the college founded by Caesar in the summer of 58 B.C.!

## Some Evolutionary Factors in the Field of Geography

OTHA KING MILES

Graduate School, University of Texas, Austin, Texas

As a preparation for writing this article some eighty representative textbooks on geography have been examined, the dates of publication ranging from 1791 to the present year. Many interesting changes have been noted and traced as concerns contents, methods, features and aims.

From the standpoint of content, the geography text between 1791 and 1937 has shrunk in scope, but within the more limited field has been greatly enriched in detail. At the close of the eighteenth century such a text began with the stars; only slowly was it brought to earth and the subterranean regions also discarded. Facts which today are classified as belonging to astronomy, physiography, meteorology, climatology, zoology, botany, and political, religious, and even "moral" history have been eliminated.

Even while the range was still encyclopedic—between 1800 and 1830—greater space apportionment was shifted from the world at large to America and then to the United States. After that date, due to

Pestalozzian influence, subject matter began to show a tendency toward starting with known facts; this limited the study of geography to the earth. By 1870 Pestalozzi's influence, exerting a more direct influence through Ritter and Guyot, led textbook writers to begin the study of geography with ideas well within the range of the individual who was to profit from the study—man and his activities became the central feature with the world merely as his background. Definitions of many abstract geographical terms were nevertheless still regarded as essential. Commercial geography, introduced about 1880, superseded much of the political and served as a bridge to the study of intercourse and contacts between nations. More and more extraneous facts of the physical sciences were sliced from the geographical core. Simplification of subject matter, both in ideas and vocabulary, was in process.

After 1900 geography formed a new alliance—with the social rather than the physical sciences,



which were left to advanced study. The ground formerly crammed into one text was now subdivided and given to a series, each of which was adapted to a different level. Another essential shift, which resulted largely from Dewey's philosophy and the World War, was from the student as an individual to him as a member of society; emphasis on content selection was laid on the interplay of peoples. Geography became an explanation of life instead of an accumulation of scientific facts and an array of definitions. Only facts chosen on a basis of their social value in explaining human and animal life on the earth continued to be borrowed from the other sciences. Each unit of study was planned to meet a definite social purpose.

The content core then has passed through a definite cycle—from the sky to earth, and from man as an individual to man as a member of society. Astronomy and geology have been relegated to college levels; studies of religion and morals, political history, and such details as boundaries of countries, lists of capitals, and their rivers have passed into the discard. Physical geography persisted until the World War, but since then has been more or less absorbed as a branch of geology.

In surveying the changing content of these books, it becomes clear that throughout the period most writers have been uniformly trying to bring the text within the comprehension of young children. While the early writers failed completely in attaining this end, persistent effort was made to simplify both ideas and vocabulary, and to eliminate technical and abstract terms. Slow and difficult as the process has been, the books of today are evidences of considerable success along these lines. The content has been brought to the child level.

The organization of this content has also undergone drastic changes. From the early books, unmarked by logical subdivisions, the subject matter has now been so organized into topic and unit divisions that each single assignment has its specific purpose. From complete dependence on the text, the problems presented now demand much independent work involving study of pictures, maps, collateral readings, reference works, clippings, excursions, and observations.

Methods of teaching geography have also been revised. The early texts consisted of concise factual statements to be memorized. From these encyclopedic treatments evolved geographies designed for reading books, but difficult of comprehension because the treatment was abstract and technical. Like other books of that period, the largely uncomprehended text was committed to memory. By 1816 the catechismal method had established itself and was destined to a long life. The question and answer method prevailed largely through the nineteenth century.

When the content matter began to radiate from the home after 1870, interest became a factor in the learning process and a corresponding lessening of demand upon rote memory resulted. Picture and map study, observation, and field excursions were encouraged. Still, definitions to be memorized persisted.

When the child himself as a social individual was taken as a point of departure, interest was first of all appealed to; personal and collective research encouraged; and thought rather than factual questions employed. While the importance of acquiring knowledge which involves facts has at no time been underestimated, the emphasis has been shifted to logically built up associations as its basis. These newer methods demand more knowledge, more initiative, and more imagination on the part of the teacher and encourage the same qualities in the child, and thus when the activities came into prominence, geography was found to be one of the most typical of units.

In comparing the geographies of yesterday and today, certain features strike the observer at once. First of these are size and appearance. From the very small volumes of 3 x 5 inches, they increase in dimensions to 12 x 4 inches; today the majority are 8 x 10 inches and average about 200 pages. From the dreary blue and brown paper and leather covers, the texts have changed until now they are given durable, but bright, artistic bindings.

Inside, technical changes are no less drastic. Type has changed from the small, closely set to the large, well spaced on pages with ample margins and marginal notes. The text is broken into many paragraphs, thus lightening the appearance of the page, and at the same time adhering closely to scientific knowledge concerning mechanics of reading.

Through the volumes the development of the arts of cartography and photography can be traced. From the crude black and white outline maps, dotted with only a few towns, we pass in 1825 or thereabouts to the first sketches; a few years later to the first maps in color; in 1832 to a book containing both maps and pictures as a basis for direct study. Slowly the number of each has increased until today hundreds of well chosen photographs, many in colors, and lithographed maps, uniform in scale, contribute directly to its understanding.

Sometime near 1820 came the first index; but not until twenty or twenty-five years later did it become very concise and show orderly arrangement of the book; it has since become a permanent feature and serves as an introductory tool to further investigation. Tables of content appear regularly after 1870; these have become briefer and have assumed outline form in many cases. About the same date teaching aids begin to appear. Reference tables, collateral reading lists, summaries, reviews, thought questions, suggested problems for more intensive study, and unit

and topic divisions—all undreamed of by earlier textbook writers—mark the textbook of today.

The function of geography is not the accumulation of information, but the ability to think geographically, to know the world in which one lives, and to understand one's self as a part of the social whole. Contrary to the thinking of the eighteenth century textbook writers is an expression from a recent writer:

The outstanding educational objective of geography is to help make purposeful thinkers and successful doers—not to create animated gazeteers.<sup>1</sup>

The importance of geography has gradually increased until some authorities in the educational field today contend that when it comes to moulding the ideals and attitudes of good citizenship, no subject contributes more than geography properly studied and taught. It challenges thought and teems with interest and life, and no subject in the field of social science can contribute more to the knowledge and understanding of human relationships.

<sup>1</sup> H. H. Barrows, *Organizing Geographical Material* (Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Company, 1934).

## News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Girard College, Philadelphia

### AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

American Education Week, this year, falls during the week of November 7 and centers round the theme, Education and Our National Life. The daily topics suggested are:

Sunday, Nov. 7: Can We Educate for Peace?

Monday, Nov. 8: Buying Educational Services.

Tuesday, Nov. 9: The Horace Mann Centennial.

Wednesday, Nov. 10: Our American Youth Problem.

Thursday, Nov. 11: The Schools and the Constitution.

Friday, Nov. 12: School Open House Day.

Saturday, Nov. 13: Lifelong Learning.

The National Education Association, sponsor of American Education Week, points out that "to an ever-increasing extent the welfare of the whole nation depends upon the welfare of all the geographical sections of the country and upon the welfare of all population groups. . . . The time is at hand to consider once again, as carefully as did the founders, what has been called 'the unique function of education in American democracy.'" The general theme, Education and Our National Life, "is especially appropriate to the present period when the federal government has come to affect so vitally every phase of American life."

The Association (1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.) publishes a *Handbook*, bibliographies, posters, etc., useful in planning Education Week activities. (*Handbook*, 20 cents; bibliographies, 10 cents.)

### EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION

Over a year ago the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators established the Educational Policies Commission to study current issues and problems of public education. The Commission, of twenty members, has been conferring with authorities in various fields of interest in order to ascertain the best thought of our time on such issues and problems. A dozen or more projects already are under way, three of them now being available in reports (see Pertinent Pamphlets section of this issue). Study is being made of such matters as educational objectives, social services and schools, changing school population, financing public education, conserving educational resources, and federal participation in education. The Commission, engaged in consulting hundreds of representatives of the profession, will do much to focus American thinking in education.

### COÖPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STANDARDS

In THE SOCIAL STUDIES for March, 1937, reference was made in this department to this study as one of the projects which the General Education Board was helping to finance. This school year is the fifth and last for the project, and it will be devoted to analyzing the data which have been collected and to formulating recommendations. Two hundred schools, of all kinds and in every state in the Union, have now been visited. Actual instruction has been observed carefully, more than three-fourths of the

5,000 teachers having been visited in their own classrooms, many of them several times. Study has been made of curricula, pupil activity programs, library service, guidance service, educational outcomes, staff, plant, and administration as well as instruction. Psychological, achievement, and social attitudes tests have been given to 20,000 pupils. But, in addition to these, other types of evaluation of the educational process and product were sought, such as reports on the collegiate success of over 16,000 graduates of the schools who later entered higher educational institutions, records of almost 15,000 pupils of the schools who did not go on to such institutions after leaving high school, and the judgments of 24,000 pupils and of 7,000 parents of high school seniors concerning twelve different aspects of the school's influence on the lives of boys and girls. High school teachers everywhere will be indebted to the six regional associations of the nation which launched this survey and are seeing it through to its conclusion.

#### "GEOGRAPHIC NEWS BULLETIN"

The National Geographic Society's weekly bulletins for teachers, the *Geographic News Bulletin*, will be issued again during the 1937-1938 school year, beginning early in October. The *Bulletin* keeps teachers abreast of geographic changes occurring constantly in all parts of the world: altered boundaries, explorations, new place names, economic developments, and the like. The *Bulletin* also interprets world news of peoples, places, industries, and customs, with illustrations taken from the picture files of the society.

There are thirty weekly issues during the school year, each issue including five bulletins, with illustrations and often with maps. Since this service is virtually free—twenty-five cents a year being the only charge, to cover postage costs—the *Geographic News Bulletin* is furnished only to teachers, librarians, and college and normal school students. It is published by the National Geographic Society, Washington, D.C.

#### VISUAL MATERIALS

*Seeing Salem*, a one-reel 16 mm. silent, educational film, is now available for schools. This film is based on the feature picture, *Maid of Salem*, but it omits the fictional elements and excitement of the story. It emphasizes the costumes, furnishings, tools, countryside, village architecture, daily activities, and people of colonial Salem. The distributor is the Bell and Howell Company, 1815 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago.

*We the People* is a one-reel, 16 mm. sound, film summarizing the history of our Constitution from 1787 to 1933. It is distributed by Walter O. Gutlohn, 35 W. 45th Street, New York.

The *City Series* of *Picturol* filmslides has been re-

vised. The cities depicted include New York, Cleveland, Denver, Detroit, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, New Orleans, Pittsburgh, San Francisco, Seattle, St. Louis, and Washington, D.C. *Picturols* are made by the Society for Visual Education, 327 S. La Salle Street, Chicago.

The Social Science Committee of Teachers, New Providence Public Schools, New Providence, New Jersey, has prepared a ten-page publication, *Materials of Instruction in Social Science*, which lists more than one hundred sources of free posters and publications. Copies may be secured free of charge from George Wright, Supervising Principal of the New Providence, New Jersey, schools.

#### MEETINGS

On May 7 and 8 the annual spring meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers was held in Philadelphia. The preliminary conference of members of the Association interested in teacher training, the second conference on this subject, made it evident that such meetings are valuable. The discussions showed a surprising variety of practice among the states and suggested the desirability of a greater degree of uniformity in this field.

The recent report of the Commission on History of the College Entrance Board (*THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, December, 1936, pp. 546 ff.) drew attention of teachers to the social process approach method of history teaching which has been proposed by Leon C. Marshall of the American University. Professor Marshall explained the method at the Friday afternoon session of the Association and Harry Bard, supervisor of history of the Baltimore Junior High Schools, described the fruitful results of his use of the method. Professor Frederick C. Lane of The Johns Hopkins University reminded his hearers of the values obtained by beginning history at the beginning. That the social process approach method is attracting considerable attention among teachers was manifest in the discussion which followed the formal papers, the lead being taken by Josephine Mayer of Teachers College, Columbia University, Arthur C. Bining of the University of Pennsylvania, and Dorothy M. Parton of the Central High School of Washington, D.C.

No less timely was the topic of the session on Saturday morning, "Present Issues Arising from the Constitution." The widespread national interest in the Supreme Court issue last spring dominated the discussion. W. Reed West of The George Washington University described "The Expansion of the Executive Power," and then Broadus Mitchell of The Johns Hopkins University and Merlo J. Pusey of *The Washington Post* discussed "Judicial Review," the former warmly supporting change and the latter



counseling caution. Expression of opinion from the floor, afterwards, was warm and prolonged, the lead being taken by Lida A. Lavers of Central High School, Newark, New Jersey, and K. Augusta Sutton of Teachers College, Danbury, Connecticut.

Dr. Ella Lonn of Goucher College, the retiring president of the Association, delivered a scholarly address on Friday evening on "Blunders in International Relations of the Post War Period," emphasizing again the insecurities in the current international situation. At the closing meeting on Saturday, Professor Shotwell of Columbia University, from the vantage point of one closely identified with post war events and Director of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, offered a ray of hope in his inspiring address, "History in a Changing World." Out of the experiences of such meetings on international problems, he suggested, as those which have been held for more than a decade by such organizations as the International Labor Office may arise procedures for selecting representatives to congresses much more effective than present customary practice in the political field.

At the same time that the Middle States Association met, the New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association gathered in conference at New Brunswick. The sectional meeting of teachers of the social studies dealt with the theme, "Adapting the Social Studies to the Needs of Non-College Students." The question at issue was, "What changes in subject matter and classroom techniques must be introduced to meet the citizenship requirements of the increasing number of students not preparing for college and those unable to meet the traditional standards?" Has any other practical problem worried high school teachers of this generation more than this one? Clara V. Braymer of Trenton High School, Margaret Smith of Plainfield High School, Robert I. Adriance of East Orange High School, and Sol Levin of Atlantic City High School presented views and practices from various parts of the state, and John T. Greenan of East Orange High School opened the general discussion.

The twenty-fifth annual meeting of the Nebraska History Teachers' Association was held at Lincoln, Nebraska, April 15-17. The chief speaker was Professor Frederick C. Dietz of the University of Illinois. During the different sessions Professor Dietz made four addresses: "The New Deal in England"; "The First Modern Depression, 1870"; "The Wonderful Generation—1850-1870"; and "Historians I Have Known." The following officers were elected: President, Miss Bess Alexander, York High School; Vice-President, Professor Frank H. Heck, Peru State Teachers College; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Carrie Roberts, Lincoln High School.

#### WARS OF IDEAS

The Right Honorable Sir Herbert Samuel, well-known British Liberal leader, delivered a remarkable address on this subject last November as President of the British Institute of Philosophy. The address has been reprinted in this country as the leading article in *International Conciliation* for May 1937 (No. 330). Sir Herbert summarizes the principles of democratic, fascist, and communist philosophies, points out the principal factors underlying them, and calls for a positive policy in democratic nations to combat the menace of dictatorship based upon fascist or communist principles before the nations of the world align themselves on the Left and the Right and resort to war in a clash of ideas. His address is a clear presentation of a great international problem.

#### "EVENTS"

Have you seen this magazine? The first issue appeared in January of this year, under the editorship of Spencer Brodney. It carries no advertisements, but devotes itself, in articles and notes, to a monthly review of world affairs. Teachers in the social studies field will want to become acquainted with it.

#### HAVE YOU READ THESE ARTICLES?

Drew Pearson and Robert S. Allen, of "Washington Merry-Go-Round" fame, have supplemented their book on the Supreme Court, *The Nine Old Men*, with three articles called, "Seventy-Nine Old Men," in *Common Sense* for April, May, and June 1937. They review the history of the Supreme Court and argue that the court, in grasping power, has all but destroyed the Constitution itself.

In the June issue of *The Atlantic Monthly* George Sokolsky's "Government by Pressure" pictures the play of pressure groups upon government, in a democracy. Dr. Carl J. Friedrich, formerly of Germany and now a member of the staff of Harvard, in an article on "Education and Propaganda," warns educators of the menace of propaganda. Judge Crabitès, for many years an American member of the Mixed Tribunal at Cairo, Egypt, tells in the July number his reasons for thinking that there is a "Storm Rising in Palestine." The August issue seems especially full. Wickham Steed, former correspondent and editor of the *London Times*, and William Reswick, Russian-born American correspondent in Russia for the Associated Press, study the mystery of recent events in Russia: "Crisis in Russia." The famous American editor, William Allen White, argues in "The Challenge to the Middle Class," that a class-conscious proletariat is rising in the United States. Wendell Willkie, democrat and head of the Commonwealth and Southern Company, presents a dispassionate case for private ownership of power utilities. His article on

"Political Power" will be followed in September by one from the pen of Dr. Morgan, Director of the TVA, who will present his views on public ownership of utilities. As a calm in the midst of these current issues is the article by Courtlandt Canby, "A Letter from Persepolis," which gives his impression of the great ruins as he saw them recently.

The series begun last March in *Fortune* on "Background of War" has continued throughout the spring and summer, surveying the major countries of Europe.

In the summer issue of *Yale Review* three articles may be mentioned as being especially interesting for teachers of the social studies: Carl Becker's "Loving Peace and Waging War"; Carl J. Friedrich's "The Peasant as Evil Genius of Dictatorship"; and A. A. Berle, Jr.'s "Redistributing the National Income." The first is an article by the famous historian surveying the bases and motives of wars and their fruits. The second, by Professor Friedrich who was mentioned above, indicates that dictators cannot survive, in Europe at any rate, without peasant support. The third, by the co-author of the noted book, *The Modern Corporation and Private Property*, examines the problem of how to increase the national income among the people at large.

Similarly, two articles may be selected for mention from the summer issue of *The North American Review*. One of these is on "Coöperatives in America." The author, Marquis W. Childs, is an authority on the subject of coöperatives and gave a notable exposition of the subject in his book, *Sweden, the Middle Way*. The other is Leta S. Hollingworth's "Bright Students Take Care of Themselves." Dr. Hollingworth insists that our concentration on the less bright works hardships not only on bright children but upon the whole community.

In the July issue of the quarterly, *Foreign Affairs*, Lawrence A. Fernsworth writes on "Revolutionary Forces in Catalonia," Gaston Nerval discusses "Europe Versus the United States in Latin America," and William L. Langer describes the "Tribulations of Empire: the Mediterranean Problem."

In several ways these discussions are taken up also in *Current History*. For instance, with regard to the Latin American situation, Genaro Arbaiza, noted South American journalist, describes the effect of the recent Buenos Aires conference upon the Monroe Doctrine, in "Monroe Doctrine: 1937 Edition." Lawrence A. Fernsworth, American correspondent of the *New York Times* and also the *London Times*, writes on "Spain Balks the Fascists," an article which continues his study of the Spanish situation ("Foreign Aims in Spain," in the March issue). In the July number four articles, under the general title, "Spotlights on Canada," deal with Canadian labor, social credit, and imperial relations. William Henry Cham-

berlin, Tokyo correspondent of *The Christian Science Monitor*, inquires about the future of the Philippines, now that independence is near, in "Puzzle in the Philippines." W. Carroll Munro, associate editor of *Current History*, presents social problems connected with the radio, under the title, "Empire of the Air." In the July issue, Marc T. Greene, American and British correspondent, asks, "How Dangerous Is Japan?" He believes the Japanese threat has been exaggerated. "Arms Over Europe," by Curt L. Heymann of the *New York Times*, is the first of four articles on the European armament programs.

A series of articles on imperialism was begun in the July issue of *Asia*, seeking to assess "the costs, problems and rewards of Empire," for both Asiatic colonies and the Great Powers. The first article, by William Henry Chamberlin, discussed "A New Deal for French Indo-China?" In August, Theodore Roosevelt, former governor of the Philippines, wrote on, "Do Our Colonies Pay?" In September, A. Vandenbosch described the changing status of Holland in the Far East, under the title, "Troubles of a Colonial Power," and in the October issue Marc T. Greene answers the question, "What Has Britain Done for India?" These articles will be followed by others on the same general topic.

"To astonish the reader," is *Harper's* opinion of Marshal De Bono's article, in the August number, about the Ethiopian War. Its frankness is astonishing. The article, "Planning the Ethiopian Conquest," really is a condensation from the Marshal's book, *Anno XIII: The Conquest of an Empire*, which is appearing in England in English translation. It is an insider's revelation of fascist expansion, with a commendatory introduction from Il Duce himself.

#### REGISTRATIONS IN SOCIAL STUDIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Carl A. Jessen, of the Federal Office of Education, as a result of reports from nearly 15,000 high schools, declares that American history is not yet a universal offering in American high schools. In 1928, 73.5% of the schools offered it, and in 1934 the percentage had arisen to 80%. The actual figures, however, are higher since small schools often must alternate American history with some other subject, thereby being unable to report it as an offering in a given year. Mr. Jessen also reports, for the 1928-1934 period, a decline in pupil registration in American history courses in proportion to the total school enrollments. Ancient history and the course in medieval and modern history also show declines in both school offering and pupil registration. On the other hand, the world history course is the most rapidly developing one in the history field. Since 1928 the number of schools offering the course has doubled, until, in 1934, more than half the schools

offered it. A detailed chart, showing the number of schools, enrollments, and registrations in history courses in all the states of the Union, the District of Columbia, and the foreign possessions of the United States, accompanies Mr. Jessen's article (*School Life*, April 1937, pp. 243 ff.).

In the May issue of *School Life* Mr. Jessen continues his analysis of these schools, studying the offerings and registrations in other social studies, and presents a similar, detailed chart. Less than a third of the four-year high schools offer courses in United States civics, while half do not offer a course in problems of democracy. In many cases, however, civic instruction is included in the American history course. In 1928 six per cent of the schools offered the problems of democracy course and only one per cent of the students enrolled; in 1934 70% of the schools offered the course and 10% of the students took it. At the same time substantial increases took place in courses in both economics and sociology. Problems of democracy leads in the number of students taking the non-historical social studies, economics being second, United States government third, and sociology fourth. American history leads all the social studies courses and problems of democracy now stands second.

### JOHN DEWEY

In *The Social Frontier* for May and June, 1937, Professor Max C. Otto of the University of Wisconsin, writing under the title, "Philosopher of a New Age," describes the rôle played by John Dewey in the history of thought. Professor Otto selects three of Dewey's ideas, "any one of which would, in my judgment, have been sufficient to inaugurate a new era in philosophical thinking." This is a remarkable statement and a grand tribute to a great American. The three ideas which Dr. Otto describes are Dewey's concepts of experience, intelligence, and human nature, viewed in the ultimate frame of reference—democracy. In conclusion he says, "We live, as everyone knows, in times of peculiar danger. An ominous threat hangs over the landscape of life. His [Dewey's] is a philosophy for these times, and for us all, but especially for the oncoming generation, for those who must navigate a river that has broken its banks, and who need a method of charting their course by new headlands as traditional beacons grow dim and vanish from sight."

An interesting application of what Professor Otto has to say can be made to the article on "Education and Social Change," written by John Dewey in the May number of *The Social Frontier*.

## Book Reviews and Book Notes

### SOCIAL SCIENCES

*The United States and the Republic of Panama.* By William D. McCain. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1937. Pp. xv, 277. \$3.00.

The recent negotiation of a new treaty with the Republic of Panama, a phase of the present administration's "Good Neighbor" policy, brings out the timeliness of this volume on the history of our relations with that Central American country. The book traces the history of our dealings with Panama from the time it was a province under Colombia to the present day. The present reviewer spent two years teaching in the Canal Zone Junior College and can vouch for the authenticity of most of Dr. McCain's interpretations.

After a quick résumé of Panama's early history and a brief explanation of how it became independent of Colombia, the author deals in detail with the gradual extension of American influence on the Isthmus. He explains the disputes that arose during Canal construction days when American officials interpreted the Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty more liberally than the Panamanians expected. He shows how Panama was

"persuaded" to change her army into a small police force in 1904-1905. Note should be made however that since the publication of this book, the situation has changed. According to a dispatch to the *New York Times* last April 14, the President of Panama placed the national police on a military basis on April 13.

Dr. McCain elaborates on the boundary dispute between Panama and Costa Rica and the resulting hostilities, in which the United States placed a pacifying hand on Panama. He gives a clear and complete account of American private investments on the Isthmus, of continued territorial expropriation by the United States of Panamanian territory in order to fortify the Canal, of American hindrances to Panama's efforts to build a road across the Isthmus to join her two main cities, Panama and Colon. He explains with care the close coöperation of the Republic of Panama with the United States during the World War, and finally, he gives examples of America's more sympathetic treatment of Panama within recent years.

Occasionally, in various sections of the book, long quotations and minute details of intricate negotiations impede the average reader's grasp of the central



thread of thought. The material in the book is presented objectively. Shortcomings are exposed with respect to the dealings of both United States and Panama. Dr. McCain speaks of "the tactlessness of Zone officialdom" (p. 34), of the Dingley Tariff as "a just grievance of the Panamanians" (p. 44). At the same time, he is aware of unsavory local politics. He notes, for instance, how Zone officials sold to Panamanian authorities in 1932 "some . . . dye for coloring the index fingers of the Panamanians as they voted, in order that they might not absently minded exercise the privilege of suffrage more than once." (p. 77).

A few statements in the book give rise to erroneous impressions. One might question whether or not Taboga Island warrants the term "the garden spot of Panama City" (p. 150). Surely, one who has been there would never say "The Germans interned by Panama were permitted to enjoy the luxuries of the American government hotel on picturesque Taboga" (p. 199). Even in its heyday, the accommodations at Hotel Aspinwall could never be considered luxurious. Moreover, the statement, "On March 31, 1931, the 315 mile highway from Panama City to David was opened officially" (p. 183), needs a qualifying phrase, since even as late as 1934 the road was passable only for two or three months in the dry season.

Certain typographical errors should be noted. The Germans mentioned in the preceding paragraph as interned during the World War, are referred to as being "interred" (p. 194). "Merchantile" appears for mercantile (p. 245), "Pamana" for Panama (p. 250), and the author of *Government-Operated Enterprises in the Panama Canal Zone*, M. E. Dimock, appears throughout the book (p. 114, p. 260), as M. E. "Dimrock."

On the end papers of the book is printed a map of the Republic of Panama, showing the various provinces and the principal cities, as well as the territory in dispute between Panama and Costa Rica. Unfortunately, only one river appears on the map, although frequent mention is made in the chapter on "Transportation and Communication" of the Chucunaque and the Tuira, and the map of the province of Darien has plenty of space for them to be shown. The book contains an excellent bibliography and an adequate index.

The criticisms that can be offered do not detract vitally from the general worthiness of this volume. The material given by Dr. McCain presents a real opportunity to students for a more intelligent understanding of Panamanian-American relations. The importance of Panama to our national security has too frequently been underestimated.

HAROLD F. WILSON

State Teachers College  
Glassboro, New Jersey

*The Cambridge History of the British Empire*. Edited by A. P. Newton and E. A. Benians. Volume VIII. *South Africa*. Cambridge: at the University Press; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. Pp. xxv, 1005. \$11.00.

This volume, the last in number though not in time of appearance, completes that part of the *Cambridge History of the British Empire* which is devoted to the Dominions. The work of eminently qualified authors, it represents a happy combination of authoritative scholarship and clear exposition. So easily does the narrative flow from one chapter to the next that the table of contents is needed to apprise the reader of its various authorship.

The scholarly restraint of the work does not obscure the romance of South Africa's history. Though its coast line was known to the Portuguese, South Africa was first colonized in 1652 by the Dutch East India Company, not because of any desire for a colony there, but because the ravages of scurvy on the long voyages to the Indies necessitated a revictualling station for its merchant fleet. Yet, it was impossible to keep the population from straggling, especially since the Bushmen and Hottentots offered no very strong opposition. By the time that white settlement had spread sufficiently far into the interior to encounter the more formidable Bantu peoples, the Dutch period was almost at an end. The establishment of British rule was not so very much resented by a people who were unaccustomed to self-government and to whom the greatest of political boons was to be left alone. Friction between Boer and Briton was rather a later development.

British missionaries established themselves in South Africa, and became the self-appointed champions of the natives. They assailed the servitude imposed upon the Hottentots through vagrancy laws and took the part of the Kaffir in the frontier districts, upholding native against colonist in the almost perpetual friction over cattle lifting, and opposing any extension of the frontier of the colony. When it became evident in South Africa that the missionaries had the ear of the Colonial Office Boer resentment became acute. The result was the Great Trek, in part prompted by land hunger, but largely provoked by the native problem. The Vortrekkers put their family possessions into their great ox wagons and journeyed northeast beyond the bounds of Cape Colony, where after many adventures they founded their two republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. The Great Trek multiplied the difficulties of the British in South Africa. They had then no desire to claim the interior, yet the existence there of independent Boer governments nullified their attempts to settle the native problem. Their policy vacillated between annexation and the granting of independence, until the discovery of great mineral



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wealth stiffened their attitude. The Kimberley diamond mines were indeed declared to lie within British territory, but the gold deposits of the Witwatersrand were indubitably within the Transvaal. The miners who were soon thronging the southern Transvaal were nearly all British, and were denied political rights and placed under certain disabilities by the Boers, who did not wish to see their tradition swamped by these "Uitlanders." The resulting friction, complicated by the soaring imperial ambitions of Cecil Rhodes, whose British South Africa Company was concurrently developing the vast region which was to be named for him, and by the intransigence of President Kruger, led to the Boer War. Each side was surprised by the strength of an under-rated adversary, but the overwhelming resources of the British Empire permitted only one outcome. None too easy of conscience, the British granted lenient peace terms, and reconciliation proceeded apace. Within eight years of the ending of the war the Union of South Africa was established, binding the two former Boer republics with the British colonies, Natal and Cape Colony, into a single, highly centralized political unit. South Africa has since played the part of an autonomous dominion within the Empire.

The story is of course familiar to students of South African history. Yet, no previous account has been at once so full and so authoritative. This volume well sustains the high standard of the *Cambridge History of the British Empire*, and the two which have yet to appear—the second and third—devoted to the Empire as a whole during the period since the American Revolution, will be awaited with keen interest.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

#### TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

*Introductory Economics.* By James Harvey Dodd. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1936. Pp. 516. Illustrated. \$1.60.

The author, after stating in his Preface five assumptions that are generally accepted, asserts that he has striven to accomplish three objectives: "1. To develop an understanding of those constant, fundamental tendencies and conditions that underlie current economic problems. 2. To develop a proper appreciation of the importance of present-day economic questions. 3. To write in language that can be easily understood by the average high school junior or senior."

The book is readable and interesting and contains many appropriate illustrations. The chapters are well arranged in order of sequence and conclude with clear and well stated summaries. At the end of each chapter

is found a series of questions that may be useful in reviewing the content of the chapter. Also, one finds questions and suggestions for showing the application of subject matter; problems for debate; topics for special reports; and lists of readings and references.

It would seem that this text should aid materially in accomplishing the fundamental aims of the development of understandings, and of appreciation.

Absence of the customary division of the subject matter of economics into consumption, production, etc., may be regarded by some teachers as a serious mistake; but if the pupil is not going to college to pursue further a study of economics, he may not need the conception of a scientific arrangement of the subject into consecutive units. Also, some may regard as of greater value than the conventional method of subject division in economics the aims of the author, expressed above, and that these aims may be obtained most satisfactorily by use of the thirty-one topics into which the book is divided—a chapter for each topic.

HENRY G. SWAYNE

Head, Social Studies Department,  
High Schools,  
Savannah, Georgia

*Exploring Geography.* By Mabel B. Casner and Roderick Peattie. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. x, 470. \$1.96.

Here is a text covering human geography on the junior high school level. The material is largely that used in the conventional economic geography, but is written from the social viewpoint and simplified. The teacher of the traditional place geography will find little material in this work as it presupposes such information, but teachers who are teaching the new socialized form of the subject would do well to consider it.

The book has been designed on a unit plan and the material has obviously been carefully selected. Unorthodox but stimulating materials, such as the story of Conrad's determination to visit the Congo while still a boy, helps to motivate the units into which the book is divided. The titles of these units give an excellent picture of the type of material as well as the approach: Man Learns to Use His Environment to Serve His Needs; Modern Man Changes His Environment to Serve His Needs; Different Environments Cause Unequal Growth of Nations; Agricultural Environments Contribute to Strength of United States; Forest, Power and Mineral Resources Help to Make the United States a Strong Nation; Geography Determines Location of Basic Industries of the United States; United States Has an Important Share of the World Trade; Europe the Center of the World Trade; Our Trade Relations with the Far East, Africa and Latin America Are Increasing.



The text is well illustrated throughout and pictorial graphs are used frequently instead of line or bar graphs. It has good basic material and the plan is to use this as a core of fact for discussion in class and as a basis for class activity. There are from ten to twenty-five suggested activities at the end of each chapter and it is this emphasis that makes the book different. The text itself merely takes up the fundamentals, but by its provision for class activity assumes that this will be the method by which the pupils actually learn. This should make it an ideal book for schools that are developing the "progressive" idea of education. Inasmuch as there are few books which from beginning to end have been thoroughly planned with the idea of progressive education in mind, there should be an important place for this text in the schools of the country.

DANIEL ROSENBERGER

Phineas Davis High School  
York, Pennsylvania

*A Unit Review Outline of American Civilization.* By Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Pp. xii, 283. Cloth, \$1.20; Paper, 80 cents.

The chief purpose of this unit outline is "to furnish in as brief compass as possible, the factual ma-

terials of American history, buttressed with occasional interpretations and summary statements." It is based largely on H. U. Faulkner and Tyler Kepner's *America: Its History and People* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1934). A number of excellent maps, graphs and charts adds to the value of this very workable outline. The forty-three brief biographical sketches found in the appendix are well done. Representative college entrance examination questions are also given.

A. C. B.

#### BOOK NOTES

A biography of one of the most romantic characters in American history has been published recently. The story of Stephen Decatur, hero of Tripoli and the War of 1812, is clearly and plainly told in Charles Lee Lewis' *The Romantic Decatur* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1937. Pp. 296. Illustrated. \$3.00). Based upon a careful study of official reports, personal letters, diaries, and contemporary newspapers, the book gives an interesting and fresh portrait of the naval officer who played an important part in the early history of the United States. The biography closes with an impartial account of the duel between Decatur and Captain James Barron. In this duel the hero was slain. Thus the dueling ground—then regarded as a field of honor—

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gave the final romantic touch to a character idealized even today by school children. The book is a real contribution to American biography.

Students of medieval history will be interested in *The Scourge of the Clergy: Peter of Dreux, Duke of Brittany*, by Sidney Painter (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. vii, 155. Map. \$2.25). Many phases and aspects of thirteenth century France are concretely illustrated by the career of Peter of Dreux, who lived during the first half of that century. The author states that he has written the book because he wanted to. The result is a charming biography that measures up to the highest standards of historical writing. Written in a scholarly manner, presented in an interesting style, and carefully documented, the monograph is a worthy addition to the field of medieval history.

The subtitle of Delos O. Kinsman's *Our Economic World* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 584. Illustrated. \$3.50) is "A Study of the World's Natural Resources and Industries." This well describes the broad scope of the book. The purpose of the volume is to "assist the reader in locating the world's supply of raw materials, in understanding the intricate processes of production, and in appreciating the organization of the economic system which today makes available our vast supply of goods." The general approach is historical and the point of view is social. Following each chapter are suggestive questions and a list of suggested readings.

In Martin Quigley's *Decency in Motion Pictures* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 100. \$1.00) a definite viewpoint and a common-sense philosophy on the subject of decency in motion pictures are presented. The potency of the cinema, its influence upon human conduct, and various methods of effecting desirable regulations which have been tried without substantial success, are simply and impartially told. Coming from the pen of the man who brought the Production Code into existence against many obstacles, the book is authoritative. Educators everywhere will do well to read this little volume which points out the responsibilities as well as the benefits for humanity of motion pictures.

#### PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

*The Passing Political Show*. By Thomas K. Salmon. The Tuttle Publishing Company, Rutland, Vermont. 50 cents.

A collection of articles on the political aspects of the present, both national and state.

*The Use of Books and Libraries*. By Harold G. Russell, Thomas P. Fleming and Blanche Moen.

University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota. 75 cents.

A syllabus for use in connection with a study of library methods.

*What Organized Labor Wants*. By August Claessens. Rand School Press, 7 East Fifteenth Street, New York. 5 cents.

An account of the demands of organized labor.

*Stories of American Industry*. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 10 cents.

A series of radio talks prepared under the direction of the United States Department of Commerce.

*Public Affairs Pamphlets*, Bulletin No. 3, 1937, of the United States Office of Education. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 10 cents.

An annotated bibliography of 660 inexpensive pamphlets on social, economic, political, and international affairs. Monthly supplementary lists, in mimeographed form, are issued, to keep the bulletin up-to-date.

*Building America*. Published eight times a year by The Society for Curriculum Study, 425 West 123rd Street, New York. Single copy, 25 cents.

Volume I is now available in a single book, with complete index. This volume includes: Housing; Food; Men and Machines; Transportation; Health; Communication; Power; Recreation; Youth Faces the World. Volume II, the last of the eight issues of which appeared in May includes: Our Constitution; Safety; Clothing; Social Security; Steel; We Consumers; Conservation; Movies.

*The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (50 cents). *A National Organization for Education* (Free). *Deliberative Committee Reports of 1936* (Free; also for 1935).

The first publications of the recently created Educational Policies Commission (see News and Comment section), 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

*Unemployment Compensation* Publication No. 14, March, 1937, Social Security Board, Washington, D.C. 10 cents.

Discusses unemployment insurance in other lands, recounts its development in this country, reviews the principal provisions of the Social Security Act relating to unemployment compensation, and describes the major considerations in unemployment compensation. A two-page bibliography is appended.

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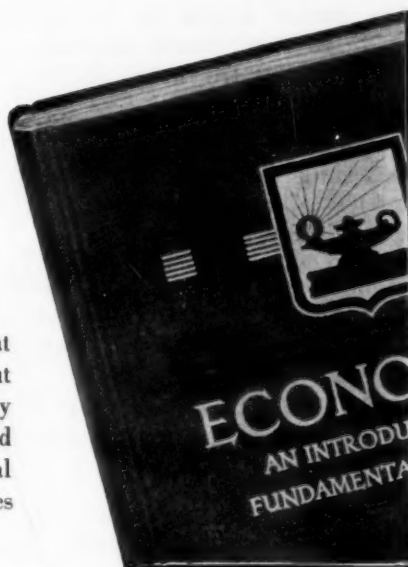
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A record of the development and changes in American society.

*The Ancient World.* By Wallace Everett Caldwell. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1937. Pp. xvii, 590. Illustrated. \$3.75.

The first of a series of three texts which together will constitute a history of western civilization. The succeeding two will be *Medieval Civilization*, by Loren C. MacKinney, and *Modern Europe*, by Stringfellow Barr.

*Readings in Modern and Contemporary History.* Edited by Arthur N. Cook. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. xvii, 361. \$2.50.

A collection of seventy-four selections from the historical writings of noted authorities and from official documents.

*Le Voyage de Lapérouse sur les Côtes de l'Alaska et de la Californie (1786).* Edited by Gilbert Chinard. Historical Documents, Institut Français de Washington, Cahier X. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. xlix, 144. Illustrated. \$3.00.

An account of a journey of the Comte de Lapérouse, with an introduction by Gilbert Chinard.

*The Making of American Civilization.* By Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xv, 932, xliii. Illustrated. \$2.20.

A new history textbook for senior high schools.

*American Political and Social History.* By Harold U. Faulkner. New York: F. S. Croft and Company, 1937. Pp. xxii, 772. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A college textbook.

*A History of the Economic and Social Progress of the American People.* By Walter W. Jennings. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 811. \$3.50.

A college text with emphasis on economic life.

*A History of Chicago.* By Bessie Louise Pierce. Volume I. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1937. Pp. xvii, 455. Illustrated. \$5.00.

Volume I, *The Beginning of a City, 1673-1848*, the first of several volumes on the history of Chicago.

*A History of the Economic and Social Progress of European People.* By Walter W. Jennings. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1936. Pp. xiii, 713. \$3.50.

A text intended primarily for college students who are beginning the study of the social sciences.

*Europe in the Middle Ages.* By Warren O. Ault. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 730. Illustrated. \$3.48.

A revised edition.

*Marcus Agrippa: Organizer of Victory.* By F. A. Wright. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 268. Illustrated. \$2.50.

An account of a great Roman written for the general reader.

*Claude Kitchin and the Wilson War Policies.* By Alex Mathews Arnett. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1937. Pp. xii, 341. Illustrated. \$3.00.

The story of one of the Democratic leaders who unyieldingly opposed President Wilson's war policies.

*Teaching the Social Studies.* By Edgar Bruce Wesley. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xvii, 635. \$2.80.

A treatment of principles and methods in the teaching of the social studies.

*New Techniques in Social Science Teaching.* By Vernon B. Hampton. Stapleton, N.Y.: The John Willing Press, Inc., 1936. Pp. 311. \$2.75.

A case book of methods.

*Recent Trends in Rural Planning.* By W. E. Cole and H. P. Crowe. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xv, 579. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A presentation of various attempts to attack certain rural problems and plans for rural living.

*The Share Croppers.* By Charlie May Simon. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. 247. \$2.50.

A story centering in the plight of the share cropper in the South.

*Hitler's Drive to the East.* New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. 130. \$1.00.

A documented account of the Nazi drive toward Eastern Europe.

*The Story of Dictatorship.* By E. E. Kellett. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. 231. \$1.75.

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